

श्री हेमेश्वर
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 उत्तराखण्ड भारत

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आवासि क्रमांक १०८३

DR. WM. SMITH'S ENGLISH COURSE.

A PRIMARY
HISTORY OF BRITAIN

for
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

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By WILLIAM SMITH, D.C.L. LL.D.



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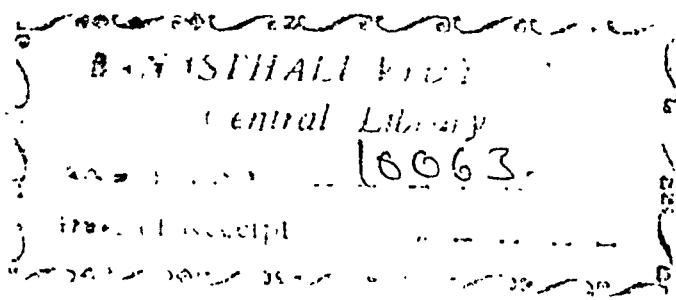
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PREFACE FOR THE TEACHER.

THIS book is a Primary History in no narrow sense: it is meant for young people of all classes, in schools and families. It is an honest attempt to exhibit the leading facts and events of our history, free from political and sectarian bias, and therefore will, it is hoped, be found suitable for schools in which children of various denominations are taught.

The work has been undertaken with two chief aims: first, to give a true and plain account of the history of our united nation, so that the rising race may not have to follow their fathers in the hard and sad path of unlearning; and secondly, to present a clear and lively narrative of the events most needful to be known, and no mere skeleton of facts and dates. Care has been taken to avoid embarrassing the young reader with many objects at one time, or distracting his attention by many clauses in one sentence.

The style aimed at is that of plain good English, not cramped within a narrow vocabulary. It is considered far better (except for the very youngest children) to raise a learner to a fair knowledge of his own language, and to stimulate his efforts at understanding the words which are really needful to express the facts and ideas that he has to learn, than to adopt a childish style which children are the first to resent.

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The book is designed for class-reading, not for cramming. The teacher will, it is hoped, not resent the occasional hints given in the notes. Many names and things, which could not be omitted if the history were to be really told, have been left for the teacher to explain. Such is the case with geographical details. It is not the part of a History to teach the Geography of Britain or of the other countries necessarily named. It is taken for granted that the subject will be explained in Class with the aid of Wall Maps. Military movements should be constantly traced on the Map.

All important dates are given, not that the memory may be encumbered with them, but as a guide to that knowledge of the sequence of events, apart from which the events themselves are often thoroughly misunderstood.

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SOVEREIGNS SINCE THE CONQUEST.

			House.	Order.	Name.	Birth.	Accession.	End of Reign.	Years.	Ago.
			NORMAN.							
				1	WILLIAM I.	End of 1027	cr. Dec. 25, 1066	Sept. 9, 1087	21	60
				2	WILLIAM II.	1057 or 1060	cr. Sept. 26, 1087	Aug. 2, 1100	13	40?
				3	HENRY I.	About 1068	cr. Aug. 5, 1100	Dec. 1, 1135	35	67
				4	STEPHEN.	Probably 1026	cr. Dec. 26, 1135	Oct. 25, 1154	19	58
			PLANTAGENET.	5	HENRY II.	March, 1133	cr. Dec. 19, 1154	July 6, 1189	35	55
				6	RICHARD I.	Sept. 13, 1167	cr. Sept. 3, 1189	April 8, 1199	10	42
				7	JOHN.	Dec. 24, 1166	cr. May 27, 1199	Oct. 19, 1216	18	50
				8	HENRY III.	Oct. 1, 1207	cr. Oct. 28, 1216	Nov. 16, 1272	66	65
				9	EDWARD I.	Juno 18, 1239	pr. Nov. 20, 1272	July 7, 1307	33	68
				10	EDWARD II.	April 26, 1284	July 8, 1307	{ deposited Jan. 20, 1327 (d. Sept. 21, 1327)	20	43
				11	EDWARD III.	Nov. 13, 1312	Jan. 25, 1327		51	63
				12	RICHARD II.	February, 1366	Juno 22, 1377		22	34
			LAN-	13	HENRY IV.	1366	Sept. 80, 1399	March 20, 1413	14	47
			CASTELL.	14	HENRY V.	Aug. 6, 1388	March 21, 1413	Aug. 31, 1422	10	34
				15	HENRY VI.	Dec. 6, 1421	Sept. 1, 1422	March 4, 1461 d. May, 1471	39	60
				16	EDWARD IV.	April 29, 1441	March 4, 1461	April 8, 1483	22	42
			TUDOR.	17	EDWARD V.	Nov. 4, 1470	April 9, 1463	June 26, 1483	3 m.	13
				18	RICHARD III.	Oct. 21, 1455	June 26, 1483	Aug. 22, 1483	2	35
				19	HENRY VII.	1456	Aug. 22, 1485	April 21, 1509	21	43
				20	HENRY VIII.	June 28, 1491	April 22, 1509	Jan. 28, 1547	8	46
				21	EDWARD VI.	Oct. 12, 1537	Jan. 28, 1547	July 6, 1553	7	16
				22	MARY I.	Feb. 18, 1516	July 6, 1553	Nov. 17, 1558	6	43
				23	ELIZABETH I.	Sept. 7, 1533	Nov. 17, 1558	March 24, 1603	45	70
			STEWART.	24	JAMES I.	June 19, 1566	March 21, 1603	March 27, 1625	22	60
				25	CHARLES I.	Nov. 19, 1600	March 27, 1625	Jan. 31, 1649	21	48
					Commonwealth.	Jan. 30, 1649	May 8, 1660	May 8, 1660	11	..
					OLIVER CROMWELL. (Protector.)	Dec. 16, 1653	Sept. 3, 1658	Sept. 3, 1658	5	60
					RICHARD CROMWELL. (Protector.)		Sept. 8, 1658	May 25, 1659 died 1674	1	..
				26	CHARLES II.	May 29, 1630	Jan. 31, 1649	Feb. 6, 1685	36	65
				27	JAMES II.	Oct. 15, 1633	pr. May 8, 1660 Feb. 6, 1685	Dec. 11, 1688 d. Sept. 16, 1701	(2) 4	68
				28	{ (WILLIAM and) MARY II. } .	April 30, 1662	Feb. 18, 1689	Dec. 28, 1694	6	23
				29	WILLIAM III.	Nov. 4, 1650	Feb. 18, 1689	March 8, 1702	13	52
					ANNE.	Feb. 6, 1665	March 8, 1702	Aug. 1, 1714	13	50
			Brunswick. (Second Branch).	30	GEORGE I.	May 28, 1660	Aug. 1, 1714	June 11, 1727	13	67
				31	GEORGE II.	Oct. 30, 1688	June 11, 1727	Oct. 25, 1760	34	77
				32	GEORGE III.	June 4, 1738	Oct. 25, 1760	Jan. 29, 1820	69	82
				33	GEORGE IV.	Aug. 12, 1762	Jan. 29, 1820	June 26, 1830	11	68
				34	WILLIAM IV.	Aug. 24, 1765	June 26, 1830	June 20, 1837	7	72
				35	VICTORIA I.	May 24, 1819	June 20, 1837	VIVAT REGINA.		

NOTE.—The regnal years of the earlier kings are dated from their coronation, till Edward I., whose coronation was postponed by his delay in returning from Palestine. John's regnal years are dated from Ascension Day, though a moveable feast. From Edward III. it became the rule to date from the proclamation. Lastly, from the death of Henry VII., the principle was established that, from the moment a king dies, his lawful successor begins to reign.

In the length of the reigns, and the ages of the kings at their death, the last *current year* is reckoned in, except in some cases, where only a small portion of it was completed.

KINGS OF SCOTLAND AND CONTEMPORARY KINGS
OF ENGLAND.

	SCOTLAND.	ENGLAND.	
	<i>I. Old Line.</i>		
Accession.			Accession.
1004	Malcolm II.	Ethelred II.	978
1034	Duncan I.	Edmund Ironside	1016
	"	Canute	1016
1039	Macbeth	Harold Harefoot	1035
1056	Malcolm III. Canmore	Hardicanute	1039
	"	Edward the Confessor	1041
1093	Donald VI. Bain	Harold II.	1066
1094	Duncan II.	William I.	1066
1095	Donald B. in (restored)	William II.	1087
1098	Edgar	"	
1107	Alexander I.	Henry I.	1100
1124	David I.	Stephen	1135
1153	Malcolm IV.	Henry II.	1154
1165	William I. the Lion	Richard I.	1189
1214	Alexander II.	John	1199
1249	Alexander III.	Henry III.	1216
1290	Margaret (last of old line)	Edward I.	1272
1292	John Balliol	"	
1296	Interregnum	Edward I. King of Scotland	1296
	<i>II. Line of Bruce.</i>		
1306	Robert I. Bruce	Edward II.	1307
1329	David II. Bruce	Edward III.	1327
1332 to 1333	Edward Balliol crowned, but not reckoned	"	
	David II. (restored)	"	
	<i>III. Line of Stewart.</i>		
1371	Robert II.	Richard II.	1377
1390	Robert III.	Henry IV.	1399
1406	James I.	Henry V.	1413
1437	James II.	Henry VI.	1422
1460	James III.	Edward IV.	1461
	"	Edward V.	1483
1483	James IV.	Richard III.	1483
1513	James V.	Henry VII.	1495
1542	Mary I. Stewart	Henry VIII.	1509
	James VI.	Edward VI.	1547
1567	"	Mary I. Tudor	1553
1603	"	Elizabeth	1558
1625	"	James I.	1603
1649	Charles II.	Charles I.	1625
1649-1707	Temporary Union of Great Britain. Charles II.	Commonwealth	1649
1651			1651
1660	James VII. = James II.		1660
1685	William III. and Mary II.		1685
1689			1689
1702	Anne.		
1707	Union of Great Britain.		1707



HISTORY OF BRITAIN.

CHAP. I.—THE BRITISH ISLES.

THEIR EARLY STATE AND INHABITANTS.

THE British Isles were first made known to the world by means of trade. Before iron, which is so hard to work, was much used by the ancient nations, their weapons and metal instruments were made of *bronze*, that is, of copper hardened by a mixture of tin. Very little tin could be found anywhere, except in the parts of Britain now called Cornwall and Devon; and so merchants were led to venture across the sea to the British Isles. In the fifth century before Christ, the Greeks knew merely the name of the “*Tin Islands*, whence tin was brought.” A century later, the name of *BRITANNIC ISLANDS* is given to two large islands in the Western Ocean, called *Albion* and *Ierne*. *Albion* means *white*, and the name was no doubt given to the island by the people of Gaul (the modern France), who beheld its white cliffs across the narrow strait: *Ierne* is the same word as that so dear to Irish ears as *Erin*. The larger island was known to the Romans as *BRITAIN* (in Latin *Britannia*) and *IRELAND* was called *Hibernia*. When the ancestors of the English people conquered most of Britain, and named that part *ENGLAND*, they still called the whole island Britain; and to this day the “Queen of England” is also “Her Britannic Majesty.” We shall soon see how Wales and Scotland got their names. They form with England the island of Great Britain. The whole group has been found to consist of no less than 500 isles, all of which may be included for brevity’s sake under the general name of *BRITAIN*.

The Britons were of the race called Celtic; and their descendants, who now inhabit Wales, call themselves *Cymry*, and still speak their ancient British tongue. The people of the Highlands of Scotland, the Isle of Man, and Ireland, are another branch of the Celtic race, called the *Gael*, and they speak a language called *Gaelic* or *Erse*.

In the middle of the first century before Christ, Caesar's two visits to Britain gave the Romans some knowledge of the island, besides what they learnt from traders.

The greater part of its surface was covered with thick forests and pathless bogs and marshes. The inhabitants of the inland parts led the wild and roaming life of hunters and herdsmen, changing their quarters in search of pasture and game. They dwelt in huts of wicker-work during the summer, and in winter they sought the shelter of caves. They sowed no corn, but lived on flesh and milk, and were scantily clothed with skins.

But the parts near the sea, between the Thames and the south coast, were very fully peopled by the same nation that lived on the opposite shores of Gaul, the *Belgians*. These people tilled the land and grew abundance of corn. They knew the art of working metals, and they stamped coins of gold, silver, and bronze.

The Britons formed numerous *tribes* or *clans*, each governed by its own chief, under the guidance and control of the *Priests*. Next in rank were a class of *Warrior Chiefs*. But every clansman was a freeman; all hard work, and what we call menial offices, being performed by slaves. There were *Kings* over different parts of the island, and this dignity could be held by women, as in the case of Boadicea. The tribes were frequently at war; but they sometimes chose a captain against a common enemy.

In person, the Britons were tall, with hair of a chestnut hue, which they allowed to grow long on the head and the upper lip only. They wore girdles round their waists, metal chains about their necks, and rings upon their middle fingers. They stained their skins blue with woad, and the people of the northern highlands tattooed them-

selves with the figures of animals, doubtless to give them a terrible aspect in the fight. Their arms were javelins, a straight broadsword, and a small shield, like the claymore and target of the Highlanders.

The most striking part of their battle array consisted in their war-chariots. They could wheel or check or stop their horses on the steepest hill-sides; and when the chariot was at full speed the warrior would run out along the pole, stand upon the yoke, and return as quickly to the car. Instead of fortified cities, they had their forests. An ample space was enclosed by a fence of felled trees, and within this they built themselves huts, and lodged their cattle, in war time. Their ordinary dwellings were in villages formed by circles of huts, partly hollowed out of the ground, with wattled sides and thatched roofs; but, in the more civilized parts, they had houses with low stone walls, conical roofs of shingle, and an arched doorway. In the marshes, villages were built on piles, forming a sort of artificial island.

We find among the ancient Britons the germ of those maritime habits for which all their successors in the island have been famous. Boats like their *coracles*, of wicker-work covered with skins, are still to be seen upon the Wye.

The Britons shared with their Gallic brethren in the terrible and mysterious religion called *Druidism*.

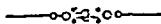
The DRUIDS were an order of priests, who were venerated alike by chiefs and people. They lived apart among the forests, under the sacred oak, crowned with the sacred mistletoe, which they gathered with a golden sickle; and they were free from war and taxes. Education was entirely in their hands, and the noble youths of Gaul were sent over to be brought up by them in the Holy Island of Britain. The groves of the Druids were polluted with human sacrifices. At great festivals, held to celebrate a victory over enemies, a huge wicker idol was filled with the prisoners, and all were burnt together.

Next in rank to the priestly Druids was the order of BARDS; the musicians, poets, and chroniclers of each tribe.

They sang to the harp the praises of their gods, the glories of nature, and the deeds of chieftains and national heroes, to cheer the feast and animate the battle.

Remains of the ancient Britons are found in their tombs, which are called *cromlechs*. They are composed of a huge stone, supported by others, like a rude table; which some have mistaken for an altar. They were covered with mounds of earth, now generally cleared away by the weather or by the hand of man. Skeletons have been found, and beside them the weapons, tools, and ornaments, that were buried with the dead.

The wonderful circles of stones, such as those at *Stonehenge* and *Avebury*, are supposed to be the remains of Druidical temples, but this is doubtful.



CHAP. II.—BRITAIN UNDER THE ROMANS.

In the middle of the first century before the coming of Christ, nearly the whole civilized world was united under the power of ROME. The Roman general CAIUS JULIUS CESAR was training, in the conquest of Gaul, the army with which he was to make himself the master of the Roman world. He coveted the glory of adding this Island of the Ocean to the Roman Empire.

In the year 55 before Christ he sailed, on a moonlight night, from a port near Cape Grisnez, and came next morning under the cliffs of Dover. Their tops were lined by Britons ready to repel this first invasion, like Britons of all races since; and Caesar sailed round to the flat shore near Deal, or, as others think, near Hythe.

The Britons were there before him, with their war-chariots. The Roman soldiers hesitated to leap down from their ships into the water, till the standard-bearer of Caesar's favourite tenth legion cried aloud, "Leap down, comrades, unless you choose to betray the eagle* to the enemy;" and he sprang down into the surf. His comrades

* The chief Roman standard was an eagle of silver or bronze.

followed, and drove the Britons from the shore. But Caesar met with an obstinate resistance, and he was glad to get back safe to Gaul before the autumn storms.

Next year he returned with a larger force, and landed unopposed at the same place. He defeated the forces of the Britons, united under the brave king CASSIVELLAUNUS; or *Caswallawn*. Caesar crossed the Thames by a ford above Kingston; and took the forest fortress of the king, which was probably at the place called *Verulam*, near St. Alban's. But he again accepted an empty promise of tribute, and returned to Gaul, with nothing to show for his pains, but hostages, and prisoners who were sold for slaves. He left not a soldier in the island; and another century passed before Britain was conquered by Rome. But Caesar's invasion brought the island into much closer commerce with the Continent. The Romans used British hounds in hunting; they feasted on British oysters; they prided themselves on the noble forms and stature of their British slaves.

In the forty-third year after the birth of Christ (A.D. 43), CLAUDIUS, the fourth emperor, sent a large force to conquer the island. In spite of the resistance of the Britons, under the heroic chieftain, CARACTACUS, or *Caractac*, the island was subdued in a few years, as far north as the river Tyne and the Solway Firth. Caractacus was betrayed by a native queen, and carried prisoner to Rome. His bold speech before the throne of Claudius obtained the emperor's favour, and he lived at Rome with his family.

The reign of the tyrant NERO, who succeeded Claudius, is marked by another of the famous stories of British history. The King of the *Iceni* (the tribe then dwelling in Suffolk and Norfolk), having no son, made the emperor joint heir with his two daughters. On his death, the Roman officers seized the whole inheritance, outraged the king's daughters, and scourged his widow BOADICEA, on the pretence that she had concealed part of the property (A.D. 61). At this time the Roman governor had gone on

an expedition against Mona (*Anglesey*), the sacred island of the Druids. Boadicea, who is described as "a Briton of royal race, and breathing a more than female spirit," roused the Iceni to revenge. Their army of 120,000 men stormed and burnt the new Roman cities of Camulodunum (*Colchester*), Verulamium (*St. Alban's*), and LONDON, which was already a great mart of commerce. The Romans and their British allies were slaughtered, to the number of 70,000. The Roman governor hastened back with only 10,000 men, and met the vast host of "the British warrior queen" in battle: 80,000 Britons were left dead upon the field, and Boadicea destroyed herself by poison (A.D. 62).

The real conquest of Britain was effected by CAIUS JULIUS AGRICOLA, whom the emperor Vespasian sent as commander in A.D. 78. He advanced as far as the narrow neck between the Firths of Forth and Clyde, across which he drew a chain of forts, marking the limit of the Roman Province. The better to secure this border, he penetrated the forests of the *Caledonians*, the inhabitants of the Scottish Highlands; and defeated them when gathered by their chief Galgacus at the foot of the Grampian Hills (A.D. 84). Nor was Agricola less active in inducing the Britons to adopt the civilization and language of Rome; and from this time the towns, at least, became half Roman.

The emperor HADRIAN, while visiting the provinces of his empire, came to Britain in A.D. 120. Both to defend the Roman part of the island, and to act against the Caledonians, he built a rampart from the Tyne to the Solway Firth; and the remains of this famous ROMAN WALL, or Picts' WALL, can still be traced. In the reign of the next emperor, Antoninus Pius, a Roman governor built the more northern rampart called the "Wall of Antoninus" (now *Grimes Dyke*), across the narrow neck between the Firths of Forth and Clyde.

The North Britons were conquered, for a time, by the emperor SEVERUS, who died at York in A.D. 211. Little more is heard of Britain till a Roman officer, but a Belgian

by birth, named CARAUSIUS, established himself as emperor in the island by means of his strong fleet. Britain was reunited to the Roman empire by Constantius, the father of CONSTANTINE THE GREAT, whose conversion to Christianity marks one of the turning-points in history.

The Christian religion had already been planted in Britain; and in the great persecution under the emperor Diocletian, the first British martyr, ST. ALBAN, was beheaded at Verulamium (A.D. 304). The town of *St. Alban's* was built from the ruins of the Roman city. From the time of Constantine, Roman Britain had its own Church, with Bishops at the principal towns.

About this time we are first told of the Picts and Scots as assailants of the northern border; while SAXON pirates, from the shores of Germany, ravaged the coasts. The *Picts* were probably the old Caledonians under another name; and they inhabited the greater part of North Britain. The *Scots* were now the ruling people of Ireland, some of whom had crossed over to the western islands and shores of the land to which they gave the name of Scotland.

In A.D. 383 the Roman army in Britain proclaimed their general MAXIMUS emperor; and the island was drained of the best part of its youth to fight under him in Gaul. On the defeat and death of Maximus, his British soldiers established themselves in the western peninsula of Gaul, which henceforth received the name of *Brittany*.

Rome, attacked by barbarian tribes, quickly lost her dominion in the West. When the city was sacked by the Goths, in 410, the Britons, as their only resource against the Picts and Scots, expelled the Roman officers, and set up a government of their own. Eight years later, as is written in our oldest English record, the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* (see p. 23), "This year the Romans collected all the treasures that were in Britain; and some they hid in the earth, so that no one has since been able to find them; and some they carried with them into Gaul."

Britain was now independent in name; but its Roman masters had only left it a prey to disorders and confusion

within, which lasted about forty years. North Britain and Ireland were more fortunate. The Southern or Lowland Picts had received the Christian faith through St. NINIAN, a Briton educated at Rome. The Scots of Ireland were converted by the preaching of the Briton St. PATRICK, who was born at the place now called *Kilpatrick* (that is, "Patrick's Church"), near Dumbarton, on the Clyde. Ireland, which had never been subdued by the Romans, enjoyed a long freedom from the troubles under which Britain now suffered, and became so famous a seat of religion and learning as to be called the *Island of the Saints*.

Though Britain was subject to the empire for four centuries, very few traces are left of the Roman dominion and civilization. The most lasting of these are the great military roads, by which the Romans everywhere secured the passage and supply of their armies. The chief of these roads is *Watling Street*, passing from the usual landing-place on the coast of Kent (*Rutupie*, now Richborough, near Sandwich) through London into Wales, and, by another branch, into Scotland. Traces of Roman camps are found in many places. The sites of the chief Roman cities are marked by walls of Roman masonry, by remains of villas, baths, and coloured pavements, together with coins, bronze statues, arms, and a great variety of objects, as well as numerous inscriptions.



CHAP. III.—THE ENGLISH CONQUEST.

FROM ABOUT A.D. 450 TO ABOUT A.D. 600.

For more than the last century and a half of the Roman rule in Britain, the coasts of the island had been harassed by the pirates called SAXONS, who came from the north-west coasts of Germany. Many of these adventurers probably settled on our eastern shores before the Romans left the island. Afterwards they came over as conquerors,

with the kindred race of the ANGLES, who gave their name to the united nation and its language. The common language of these races is called, in their first written records, ENGLISH; and the whole nation is called the “English race or kin.” The parts of the island conquered by the Saxons were called after them; but the whole of the land occupied by both peoples was called ENGLALAND, that is, “the land of the Angles.” The name “Anglo-Saxon” is often used as an abridgment of “Anglian and Saxon.”

With the Angles and Saxons came a third tribe, called the JUTES, who settled only in two small portions of England, namely, Kent, and the Isle of Wight with the neighbouring district of Hampshire. These tribes all belonged to the *Low German* race, so-called from the flat country, in which they lived, on the lower courses of the rivers Rhine, Ems, Weser, and Elbe, with the adjacent peninsula of Denmark. It is from these free tribes of Lower Germany, not from the conquered Celts of Britain, that the stock of the English nation was derived. In their habits and institutions we find the origin of those which have been adopted by the united British nation.

The story of the settlement of these tribes in England contains much that is uncertain and even fabulous. The earliest native historians give the story according to the national tradition, with dates which at least approach to the true times of the events.

1. The first recorded settlement was made by the JUTES in the Isle of Thanet. The Britons (so runs the story), having asked help from Rome, for the last time and in vain, sent to the Angles and made the like entreaty of their princes. In compliance with this invitation two chieftains, HENGEST and HORSA,* came over with three ships and landed at *Ebbes-fleet*, at the mouth of the river Stour, in Pegwell Bay. They fought for the Britons against the Picts, and had the victory wherever they went. Before long, however, they sent word to the Angles of the worthlessness of the Britons and the good-

* Both names signify *horse*, a favourite emblem of the Angles and Saxons.

ness of the land. New bodies of Germans poured into the island, and conquered the part which became the *Kingdom of Kent* (A.D. 457). The English invaders took the name of the country, calling themselves *Cantwara* ("men of Kent"), and fixed their capital at the Roman city which they called *Canterbury*, "the city of the Kent-men."

But there was much more fighting to be done yet; and we are told that the *WELSH*, that is, the Britons, fled from the Angles like fire. This word *Welsh* was, and is to the present day, the name which the Germans give to people who speak another language. The English still apply it to the remnant of the Britons, who themselves keep their old name of *Cymry*, in the land which we call *Wales*.

2. In the year 476 the second body of adventurers came in three ships, under *ELLA* and his three sons, to the coast of the present Sussex. They took the Roman city of *Anderida*, and slew all that dwelt therein, so that not a single Briton was there left. The ruins of Anderida are still seen at Pevensey. Henceforth is dated the *Kingdom of the South Saxons (Sussex)*; for Ella and his followers were Saxons; and their capital city is still called Chichester, "the city of Cissa," the son of Ella.

The South-Saxon Ella is the first to whom is given the title of *BRETWALDA*, which probably signifies "Ruler of Britain." It denoted some sort of authority held by one king for a time over the other kingdoms.

3. Another body of Saxons, the largest as yet (for they came in five ships), arrived in 495, under a leader whose progeny were destined to become kings of all Britain. The descent of Queen Victoria is traced up to the *Aldermen** *CERDIC* and his son *Cynric*, who landed at Southampton Water. Their victory over the Britons, in 510, marks the beginning of the *Kingdom of the West Saxons*, or, as it is more briefly called, *Wessex*. Its chief city was Winchester, which became afterwards the capital of the united English kingdom for several centuries.

* This title (*Ealdormen*) means "Elder," and denotes a rank next to that of King.

4. The fourth body of invaders founded, in 526, the *Kingdom of the East Saxons*, whence the name of *Essex*. The settlement of the *Middle Saxons* (Middlesex) formed a part of this kingdom, to which the city of London belonged.

5. While the Saxons were thus established in the south, the eastern coasts of Britain received settlements of the Angles, probably in a more peaceful way. The names of the *North Folk* and the *South Folk* are preserved by the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk. These two, with parts of Cambridgeshire and Huntingdon, formed the *Kingdom of the East Angles*, or East Anglia (about 570). This region had a natural boundary on the west in the great marshes of the Ouse and Nen.

6. To the west, between the Ouse and Trent, were the Middle Angles; and the eastern coast, from the Wash to the Humber, was occupied by other Anglian tribes. These were at last united under the *Kingdom of Mercia*, that is, the *march* or border towards the unsubdued British.

7. The country between the Humber and the Forth was also occupied by other Angles, and was called *Northumbria* or Northumberland, that is, the country north of the Humber. The Anglian conquerors drove out those of the Picts who dwelt between the lower Roman Wall and the Firth of Forth. Northumbria contained the territory of two British states, which formed the separate kingdoms of *Bernicia* and *Deira*. They were divided by the river Tees; so that *Deira* answers nearly to the North and East Riding of Yorkshire. The name will soon appear in a famous tale.

Thus, in the course of a century and a half from the final severance of Britain from Rome, about half of the island south of the Forth was conquered by the German invaders; but the western half was still British. On the western border of Northumbria, the Britons long upheld a powerful kingdom in *Strathclyde* (between the Clyde and Solway), and also in *Cumbria*, “the land of the Cymry,” from the Solway to the Mersey, and even much further south.

In the south, the *West Welsh*, as the English called the Britons of Devon and Cornwall, maintained a long contest with the West Saxons. The princes or kings of West Wales held a sort of leadship over all the British, which was marked by the title of *Pendragon* ("Head-war-man"). Their standard of the Red Dragon was often borne in battle against the Golden Dragon of Wessex. The British king *ARTHUR* is celebrated in the Welsh legends for his heroic resistance to the invaders, animated by the prophecies of the bard and wizard *MERLIN*. Arthur has remained the great hero of old British story, inspiring the strains of poetry in every age.

The power of Wessex reached upwards along the Severn, which divided the Saxons from the British states of *Wales*. This region was the chief retreat of the Cymric Britons from their cruel conquerors, who spared few except the women, and reduced those whom they spared to slavery. The Celtic and Latin languages, and the Christian religion, were almost rooted out from the English part of Britain.

Our heathen forefathers brought with them from Germany the worship of the terrible gods, whose names are still preserved in our days of the week, and even of our Christian festivals, as *Easter* and *Yule* (for the Paschal Feast and Christmas). The chief of these was *Woden* or *Odin*, from whom the heads of the royal houses boasted their descent, even after they had become Christians.

But the light of Christianity was preserved in the Welsh States and in North Britain. In the year 563, St. COLUMBA, an Irish abbot, crossed over in a wicker boat, with twelve companions, to evangelize his kinsmen in the west of Scotland. He founded a monastery in the little island called after him *I-columb-kill* or *I-colm-kill* ("the isle of Columba's church"), and still famous under the name of *IONA*. Thence the light of Christianity was spread not only to the Scots, but to the northern or Highland Picts.

CHAP. IV.—CONVERSION OF THE ENGLISH.

FROM THE ARRIVAL OF ST. AUGUSTINE TO THE ACCESSION OF
ÆGBERT, A.D. 597–800.

THE deluge of invasion which swept over Britain had almost, but not quite, hidden the island from the sight of Christian Europe. In Kent, at least, the new settlers kept up intercourse with the kindred Germans who had conquered Gaul; and King ETHELBERT was married to Bertha, daughter of Charibert (Herbert), the Frank king of Paris. The Christian queen came attended by a bishop, for whose use the little British church of St. Martin, beyond the walls of Canterbury, was repaired. But King Ethelbert and his people remained Pagans, like all the rest of the English, whose reputation for ferocity warned peaceful strangers from their shores.

Now it happened, as the tale is told, that some Anglian boys from Northumbria, taken (we may suppose) by pirates, were exposed for sale at Rome, when the Abbot GREGORY went to the market-place. Struck by their white skins, their fair faces, and their beautiful hair, Gregory asked from what land the boys were brought. He was told, “From Britain, for such was the appearance of its people.” Again he asked, “Whether those islanders were Christians or still in bondage to pagan error;” and he was told that they were pagans. On this, sighing deeply, he said, “Alas! that men of so bright a face are held by the prince of darkness, and that a countenance so graceful covers a mind void of inward grace!” Then he asked the name of that nation, and was told that they were called *Angles*. “And well named,” said he, “for they have an *angelic* face, and such ought to be co-heirs with the *Angels* in heaven. But what name has the province from which they were brought?” It was answered that those provincials were called the men of Deira. “And well named of *Deira*,” cried he, “as men snatched from *wrath*,”* and

* The words *de irâ*, in Latin, mean “from wrath.”

called to the mercy of Christ. And the king of that province, how is he named?" At the answer, "Ella," the joyous wit of Gregory broke out into the cry, "*Alleluia!* the praise of God the Creator ought to be sung in those parts." Forthwith he asked the Pope to send ministers of the word into Britain to the English nation, and offered himself to undertake the mission. But the citizens of Rome would not part with so pious a man; and it was not till Gregory himself was elected Pope, in A.D. 591, that he was able to carry out his cherished project.

He committed the work to AUGUSTINE, prior of the Benedictine convent at Rome, with a band of forty missionaries; and they landed at *Ebbes-fleet*, in the Isle of Thanet (A.D. 597). Ethelbert received baptism on Whitsunday, and 10,000 of his subjects were baptized before Christmas. Lands were granted to the missionaries; and Augustine was permitted to fix his "bishop's seat" beside the "king's seat" at Canterbury. In the same way, when other kingdoms were converted, the royal city became the bishop's see, and the kingdom the bishopric (*i. e.* "bishop's rule"). Pope Gregory sent Augustine a "pall," the vestment of an Archbishop, and gave him authority over all the bishops whom it was intended to appoint in southern England, as well as over the native British bishops. He died shortly afterwards and was canonized as ST. AUGUSTINE or ST. AUSTIN.

Before his death he had ordained his companion MELITUS as bishop of London, the capital of the East Saxon kingdom; and King Sebert, the nephew and dependant of Ethelbert, received the Christian faith, with his subjects (A.D. 604). The King of Kent built the cathedral church of ST. PAUL on the central hill of London; and the King of ESSEX founded, on Thorney Island, amidst the marshes of the Thames, the monastery of St. Peter, which was called, from its position, the WEST-MINSTER.

EDWIN, king of Northumbria, married Ethelburga, daughter of Ethelbert. He promised that the queen should have her own Christian attendants, and PAULINUS, one of

the companions of Augustine, accompanied her to York. Two years afterwards Edwin was baptized by Paulinus, with all his nobles and many of the people, on Easter-day (A.D. 627). The Pope sent over a pall, making Paulinus the first Archbishop of York (A.D. 634). Thus were the two archbishoprics established at the chief cities of southern and northern England.

Edwin became the fifth Bretwalda, and had power over all Britain, except Kent. "Such" (says our first historian) "was the peace in Britain at that time, wherever the power of King Edwin had reached, that even a woman with her new-born child might have walked through the whole island from sea to sea, none doing them hurt." In many places, where clear springs gushed out by the wayside, Edwin caused bronze drinking-vessels to be hung on stakes for the refreshment of travellers, and none either dared to touch these, except for their proper use, through the great fear of the king, nor wished to do so, through love of him. Can the same be said of the cups of our own drinking-fountains?

It seemed as if England were about to be united under a Christian sovereign, when all was changed by the rise of the Mercian power under PENDA, a ferocious heathen, who became king in A.D. 626. He leagued himself with Cadwalla, King of Wales, in rebellion against Edwin. The total destruction of the Northumbrian army at Heathfield (near Doncaster), where Edwin fell at the age of forty-eight (A.D. 633), was followed by a massacre of the Northumbrian Christians. The name of Edwin is still preserved by his northern capital of Edinburgh (*Eadwines-burh*, "the city of Edwin"). His successor, OSWALD, the sixth Bretwalda, killed Cadwalla in battle, and drove back the Welsh behind the Severn; but he too was slain by Penda (A.D. 642). OSWY, the seventh Bretwalda, avenged Oswald by killing Penda in battle (A.D. 655).

During the next century and a half, there was a continual struggle between the kings of Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex, the other states having become insignificant.

Wessex gradually became the most powerful of the three; and at length the West Saxon king EGBERT, whom the nobles of Wessex called to the throne in A.D. 800, became king over all England. Egbert had spent thirteen years in exile at the court of Charles, king of the Franks, witnessing the great work by which the nations of Germany, Gaul, and Northern Italy were united into the new Western or "Holy Roman Empire," of which CHARLES THE GREAT was proclaimed as sovereign at Rome. Egbert came home with the fixed resolve to make the island of Britain a smaller model of the Western Empire; and his successors copied that model in their very titles. By calling themselves *Emperors*, the English kings asserted their independence both of the Western Roman Emperor, and of the Eastern or Greek Emperor at Constantinople. They made the same claim which Shakspere expressed long after in the words, "Britain is a world by itself, and we will nothing pay for wearing our own noses."

From the first arrival of St. Austin, the Church had been steadily civilizing the rude English people. A new impulse was given to learning by the appointment of a Greek of Tarsus (the city of St. Paul), named THEODORE, to the Archbishopric of Canterbury (A.D. 668). Among his friends and pupils was BENEDICT BISCP (*i.e.* Bishop), an Anglian of noble birth, who removed to Northumbria. There he founded the two famous monasteries of Wearmouth on the Wear and Jarrow on the Tyne, and laid up in them the many "divine volumes" which he had brought from Rome. It was one chief occupation of the monks, in the ages before printing was known, to multiply books by copying them with the nicest care.

'*U*n Benedict, also, is ascribed the introduction of glass

* Till very lately, English writers have followed the bad habit of calling this emperor *Charlemagne*, the French form of his Latin name, CAROLUS MAGNUS. This has led people to think he was a Frenchman, but Charles was the German king of the German Franks. Among his other subjects were the people of Gaul, who spoke dialects of *Latin*, which passed into the *French* language. It was the breaking up of Charles's empire that gave rise to the separate states of Germany and France.

windows for churches, “that the unclean birds might not fly in.” The churches began to be decorated with paintings brought from Rome; and divine worship was enlivened by Italian chants, sung by trained choirs to the music of organs. Every church and monastery was a centre of civilization, help, and hospitality. All the science of the age was cultivated by the clergy. Their lands set an example of careful tillage, and they brought over new fruits and pot-herbs from the Continent. The island of Britain, which the heathen Angles and Saxons had begun to devastate in the fifth century was famed, in the eighth, as the most civilized country of Europe.

The Literature, which was cultivated by the churchmen in the Latin language, reached its height in the VENERABLE BEDE, the *first historian of Britain*. Born about 673, on the land which was granted in the following year for the monastery of Wearmouth, he began his education in that house at the age of seven, under Abbot Benedict; and he removed afterwards to the new foundation at Jarrow. There—to use his own simple words—“spending the whole time of my life since then in the same monastery, I have given my whole labour to studying the Scriptures; and, in the intervals of my observance of the monastic discipline and the daily occupation of singing in the church, I have always found my pleasure in learning, or teaching, or writing.” Bede died in his cell at Jarrow in 735, shortly after he had dedicated to the King of Northumbria his “Ecclesiastical History of the British Isles, and especially of the English Race,” to the year 731.

His most celebrated successor in the Northumbrian school of learning was ALCUIN, the most renowned scholar of his age. As tutor to the sons of CHARLES THE GREAT, and the adviser of that sovereign in all matters of science and education, this Englishman from Northumberland guided the revival of learning in Western Europe under the newly founded “Holy Roman Empire.” Such was the intellectual influence which England had attained at the end of the eighth century.

CHAP. V.—THE UNION OF ENGLAND, AND THE FIRST
SETTLEMENTS OF THE DANES.

FROM EGBERT TO ALFRED THE GREAT. A.D. 800–901.

NOTE.—*The succession of the kings from Egbert to the Conquest is marked by numbers.*

1. EGBERT is sometimes called the first King of all England ; but this is not quite correct, at least in the sense in which we now speak of a King or Queen of England. He was King of the West Saxons, but he won a new authority as “Lord” over the other English states, which still had their separate kings, who were called his “Men.” The conquest of the Mercians, in 827, completed his power over all England south of the Humber ; and Egbert was advancing against the Northumbrians, when they met him at Dore, in Derbyshire, “and they there offered him obedience and concord, and so they separated.” Egbert now assumed the title of eighth *Bretwalda*, as Lord of all the English kingdoms, from the Channel to the Firth of Forth, a power which none of the seven Bretwaldas before him had possessed.

The last years of Egbert’s reign were troubled by a new enemy, of a race kindred to the English. These were the DANES, a name then applied not only to the people of Denmark, but also to those of Norway and Sweden, who were all of the same *Scandinavian* race. They were also called NORTHMEN, a name preserved in *Normandy*, where they settled 100 years later. Closely allied to the old Angles and Saxons in blood, language, and religion, and following the same life of daring adventure upon the sea, these savage heathens began to inflict on the now civilized and Christian English the cruelties that had been suffered by the British. A defeat of the Danes and Welsh was the last great deed of Egbert, who died in 836.

2. ETHELWULF (836–858), the son of Egbert, was troubled by repeated invasions of the Danes, who wintered for the first time in the Isle of Sheppey in 855.

Ethelwulf had five sons, of whom Alfred, born at Wantage, in Berkshire, in 849, was the youngest and best. His mother, Osburga, is famed for her training of Alfred in the love of the old national songs of the West Saxons. One day (as the story is told) Osburga showed Alfred and his brothers a book of Saxon poetry, and she said, "Whichever of you shall the soonest learn this volume shall have it for his own." On hearing this, and seeing the beauty of the painted initial letter, Alfred cried out before his elder brothers, "Will you really give that book to the one of us who can first understand and repeat it to you?" His mother smiled with pleasure, and said, "I will." Upon this the boy took the book out of her hand, went to his master to be taught to read it or learn it by heart, and in due time he brought it to his mother and repeated the poems. There are difficulties about believing this story exactly as it is told; but it is certain that Alfred was trained from infancy in committing to memory his native English songs, and that he was afterwards eager in acquiring that book-learning which few but the clergy then possessed.

In 853, when Alfred was only four years old, the king his father sent him to Rome to receive the blessing of the Pope; and two years later, Ethelwulf himself went to Rome, taking Alfred with him. Before his departure, the king made over to the Church a tenth part (or *tithe*) of his own goods, but not (as is sometimes said) of the property of his subjects. At Rome, Ethelwulf rebuilt the *English Schools*, which had been twice destroyed by fire; and he promised to send to the Pope an annual donation, which was the origin of the tax called "Peter's Pence."

3, 4, 5. Ethelwulf's eldest son having died before his father, the kingdom was divided between his next two sons, ETHELBALD and ETHELBERT (858-866), but reunited under his fourth son, ETHELRED (866-871).

We now come to the *second period* of the Danish invasions, when they began to make conquests in the island.

The East Anglian king EDMUND having refused to purchase his life and kingdom by renouncing Christianity, he was tied by the Danes to a tree and shot at with arrows, and then beheaded. He was canonized as a saint and martyr, and the place of his burial preserves the name of *Bury St. Edmund's* (that is, "St. Edmund's Town").

East Anglia now became a Danish possession, the first that they held in England.

In 871, the Danes began their great invasion of Wessex, where no less than nine great battles were fought in this one year. In the midst of this contest, Ethelred died, probably of a wound. He was buried in Wimborne Minster, and his brave deeds against the heathen Danes gained him the name of a saint and martyr.

6. ALFRED THE GREAT—who of all kings best deserves that much misused title—was now in his twenty-second year. It was the custom to prefer a brave man of the royal house before infants; and so, though Ethelred had left some young children, he had confirmed his brother's right to the crown. Alfred's reign filled up the remainder of the ninth century, and lasted just thirty years (871–901).

After some years of struggle with the Danes, who had conquered the centre, east, and north of England, the great conflict came. At the beginning of 878 the Danes poured in from Mercia in such force, that Wessex was overrun. Many of the West Saxons were driven out over the sea, and Alfred hardly escaped with a little band to the woods and morasses of Somerset. Once (as a famous story tells) Alfred had come alone to the hut of one of his own cowherds. The goodman was gone to his work, and the good-wife was baking bread upon the hearth, where Alfred sat industriously mending and making bows and arrows while meditating on his future hopes, and waiting patiently for the better day to dawn. The woman left the hut to go and tend the cattle, having asked the stranger to mind and turn the loaves. When she came back and saw them burnt to a cinder, she broke out into reproaches, which the tale-teller gives from some old song:—

"The loaves are burning? Why don't you turn 'em?
You only care to eat 'em when they're hot!"

The blundering woman little thought that it was King Alfred, who had won so many victories over the pagans.

The turn of the tide soon came. The Danes had entered Wiltshire after Twelfth-night, and before Easter the Saxons in Devonshire won a victory, and took the famous Danish banner called the "Raven." Alfred now fortified the island in the great marshes of Selgemoor, ever since called Athelney (*Ethelinga-eigg*, "the Island of the Princes"). It was there (as another story tells) that, when all his people had gone out to fish, and Alfred was left alone with his wife and a favourite servant, a pilgrim appeared strangely before him (for there was no boat left to cross the mere), and asked for food. There was in the house but one loaf and a little wine. Alfred ordered the servant to give the half of both to the pilgrim, who gave the king great thanks, and disappeared. But when the servant went to fetch the rest of the bread and wine, he found them whole as they had been at first. While the king was wondering, his three boats came back fuller of fish than they had ever been since his people had dwelt in the island. In the night Alfred saw a vision, in which the pilgrim revealed himself as St. Cuthbert, the famous hermit of Northumbria 200 years before, and told him to rise in the morning and blow his horn thrice, when 500 of his friends would gather to him fully armed, and in seven days he should win a glorious victory. Then he bade him be faithful, for God had chosen him to be King over all Britain. Such stories ought to be known, as they have been handed down through every age of England, and have been made famous in poetry and painting; but they must be told honestly, as *legends* adorned, if not invented, by the fond feelings of later times.

It was seven weeks after Easter when Alfred went forth from Athelney, and was met joyfully at "Egbert's Stone" by the men of Somerset and Wilts and Hants. Two days later, he fought the great *Battle of Ethandune* (probably Edington, near Westbury), which delivered Saxon England

from the Danes, though they kept the Anglian states. Their king Guthorm agreed to accept Christianity, and was baptized by the name of Athelstane, with thirty of his great men, at Wedmore, near Athelney. There a treaty was made, dividing the kingdom of Alfred from the Danish part of England. The Danes had most of Essex, all East Anglia, Northumbria, and the larger half of Mercia, while Alfred kept the rest of Mercia, with all south of the Thames, and the part of Essex which included London.

Guthorm retired, in 880, to his own kingdom of East Anglia, the lands of which were now divided among his people; and Wessex was left in peace for twelve or thirteen years. But the Danish sea-rovers from abroad still made incursions up the Thames, and Alfred had to fight them both by land and water. Among these Danish rovers or *vikings* (that is, “pirates”), we find the name of one destined to have a great influence on our history—Rolf, who afterwards founded the *Norman* power in the north-west of Gaul, and from whom William the Conqueror descended.

The great body of the heathen Danes departed to make an invasion of Gaul; and for six years Alfred enjoyed his only interval of unbroken peace (885–891). It was then that the king turned from the glory gained in battle—glory real because he had never fought but in defence of his country—to nobler works for his people’s good. His works would have been wonderful if all his thirty years had been years of peace; and the wonder is increased when we learn that, during his whole reign, he suffered constantly from a strange and painful disease.

The explanation is that Alfred had those highest but simplest virtues which enable a king or a man to do real and good work; a constant sense of duty, and a single desire to benefit his people. His diligence was unwearied, and he was strict in the economy of time, allotting to every hour of the day its occupation of work or necessary rest. Both by night and day he kept account of the time by wax candles weighed and divided into measured parts,

which were placed in the churches; and to preserve them from wasting away with the wind, he invented lanterns made of wood and white ox-horn.

His industry enabled him, in no long life and amidst all the troubles of the Danish wars, not only to reform the laws and government, to enforce justice and encourage trade, but to advance the education of his people by his own personal labour. This he seems to have regarded as the noblest work of a king, and it was a work then most needful. The learning, which the Christian clergy had brought into the land, had almost died out amidst the constant civil wars and the ravages of churches and monasteries by the Danes. Alfred himself tells us that, when he began to reign, few of the clergy south of the Humber, and not many north of that river, could understand their own Latin service-book. To wipe away this reproach, he founded new monasteries and schools, invited learned men from abroad, and gave promotion to diligent and successful scholars. Shortly before the end of his reign, he could thank God that those who sat in the teachers' seat were truly able to teach. As the king made ignorance a disqualification for the judgment seat and other high offices, his judges and great men and governors, who were almost all unlettered, were stirred up to begin learning late in life. If any were too old or too slow, the king commanded that such should have English books read to them by a son, or kinsman, or servant.

Alfred devoted his own labour to supply the want of English books containing the most useful kinds of knowledge. Rightly deeming that it is most needful for a free people to know their own history and that of the whole world, Alfred translated from Latin the "Universal History" of Paulus Orosius, a Spanish clergyman of the fifth century, and the "English History" of Bede. There is good reason to believe that the regular compilation of the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," the earliest history of England in the English language, was begun at Winchester in Alfred's reign. It was his purpose to give his people the

Bible in their own tongue; but he died just as he had begun to translate the Psalms.

In after times, the love, in which the memory of “England’s Darling” was held, made men call him the author of all that was most important in the Anglo-Saxon institutions. But we learn from his own words that he did the simpler and wiser work of strengthening and building on the old foundations, removing what was rotten rather than inventing novelties, and that he did all with the advice and consent of the great national COUNCIL OF THE WISE MEN (the *Witena-Gemót* or *Witan*). Nor did Alfred neglect the material welfare of his people. He encouraged trade, and invited foreign merchants from abroad. He restored the towns, churches, and monasteries, which the Danes had ruined, and he built royal palaces.

In 893 the Danish Wars began again, and raged all over the south, and along the border of Wales. To guard his coasts by meeting the pirates on the sea, Alfred devised a new build of ships, to oppose the war galleys of the Danes. They were nearly twice as long as the others, having sixty oars and more; they were both swifter and steadier, and higher out of the water. Thus they could charge an enemy with greater force, and pour down missiles from a height on to his deck.

Some sea-fights with Danish pirates off the coasts of Wight and Devon are the last deeds recorded of Alfred, who thus bequeathed the great lesson, which a thousand years have confirmed, that the safety of England depends on her being prepared to meet her invaders upon the sea. And to all his successors on the throne he left, with the example which has grown brighter and brighter through that thousand years, the secret alike of his greatness and his goodness, in these simple words:—“This I can now truly say, that so long as I have lived I have striven to live worthily, and after my death to leave my memory to my descendants in good works.”

Alfred died on the 28th of October, 901, being only fifty-two years old, and was buried at Winchester.

CHAP. VI.—THE EARLY ENGLISH KINGDOM AND THE DANISH CONQUEST.

FROM EDWARD THE ELDER TO CANUTE AND HIS SONS.
A.D. 901–1042.

7. EDWARD THE ELDER (901–925), the son of Alfred, succeeded to the West Saxon crown, according to his father's will, which had been sanctioned by the Witan. He continued the war against the Danes, and began to build fortresses to withstand their invasions. He not only won back all England south of the Humber, but was also acknowledged as "Lord" by the Northumbrian, Scottish, and other northern states. These states, however, retained their own government, as did Wales and Cornwall, while all the rest of Southumbrian England formed the actual kingdom of Edward. Henceforth he and his successors no longer call themselves *Kings of the West Saxons*, but *Kings of the Anglo-Saxons* (that is, of the Angles and Saxons) and *KINGS OF THE ENGLISH*.

8. ATHELSTANE (925–940), the eldest son of Edward, completed his father's work of making a firmer union both of England and of Britain. He annexed Northumbria, on the death of its Danish king; but he had shortly afterwards to meet an attack from the united force of the Danes, the Scots, and the Welsh, whom he defeated at the famous *Fight of Brunanburh*, on the coast of Northumberland. This battle is commemorated in the Chronicle by a "Song of Victory," one of the most precious remains of Anglo-Saxon poetry, and the first English war-song.

9. Athelstane was succeeded by his brother EDMUND, who earned the title of the MAGNIFICENT (that is, the "doer of great deeds," not the splendid in outward pomp), in the short space of six years and a half (940–946), though he was only eighteen when he came to the throne. He conquered Cumberland from the Strathclyde Welsh, and gave it to Malcolm, king of Scotland, to hold under him, as the price of a close alliance. The year after, Edmund

was stabbed in his own banqueting hall by a robber whom he had banished.

10. EDRED, the third son of Edward the Elder, was chosen to succeed his brother, on account of the infancy of Edmund's two sons. The success of his short reign (946-955) was due to the administration of the celebrated DUNSTAN, Abbot of Glastonbury. Edred's chief exploit was the final conquest of the troublesome Danes of Northumbria. He died young, without children.

11. EDWY, the elder son of Edmund, can scarcely have been more than sixteen, when he began his short reign (955-959) by a contest with Dunstan, which involved him in misery. The clergy were divided into two great classes —the *regular*, who were monks bound by the *rules* of their orders, and the *secular* (that is, *worldly*), who were free to mix with the world, and were not yet, in England, forbidden to marry. But Dunstan resolved to enforce clerical celibacy, and to place monks in the cathedrals and other chief churches in place of the secular clergy. These schemes, which had been favoured by Edmund and Edred, were opposed by Edwy; and the young king had also a bitter personal quarrel with Dunstan.

About the time of his accession he married his cousin Elgiva, a nearer relation than the laws of the Church allowed him to marry. When Edwy withdrew from his coronation feast to visit his wife and mother, Dunstan and the Bishop of Lichfield followed him and brought him back to the hall with violence. The insult was never forgiven; and the king found a pretext for banishing Dunstan, who retired to Flanders (956). But now all the English north of the Thames rose in rebellion, and proclaimed Edgar, the younger brother of Edwy, as King of the Mercians, and Edgar recalled Dunstan (957). Next year, the Archbishop Oda divorced Edwy and Elgiva; and Edwy died the year after.

12. EDGAR, who was now sixteen, was elected King “*by the whole people of the English*” over the West Saxons, Mercians, and Northumbrians; and Dunstan was made Archbishop of Canterbury in the same year. The peace and

prosperity of Edgar's sixteen years' reign (959–975) gained him the title of EDGAR THE PEACEFUL. By keeping a fleet constantly at sea, he preserved his kingdom from all foreign invasion. He bore the high titles of "King of the English and all the nations round about," "Ruler and Lord of the whole isle of Albion;" and on one great occasion eight vassal kings—those of Scotland, Cumberland, and the Isles, with five Welsh Princes—were seen rowing his boat on the Dee at Chester, while Edgar himself steered (973).

Edgar parted Northumbria into two Earldoms, corresponding to the old divisions of Bernicia and Deira. From the former, however, he took away the region of *Lothian*, extending from the Tweed to the Firth of Forth, and gave it to Malcolm I., King of Scots, to hold under him. Thus Scotland obtained, on this side, the border which it has had ever since. The old name of *Northumberland* stuck to the northern Earldom; but this was again diminished when the district between the Tyne and Tees was formed into the county of *Durham*.

13. Edgar left two surviving sons, Edward, the son of his first wife, and Ethelred, the son of his second wife Elfrida. The boys were only thirteen and seven years old: the king had left the crown to the elder, but Elfrida tried to get it for her own child. Under the influence of Dunstan, the Witan decided for EDWARD, whose cruel fate gained him the surname of the MARTYR. After a short reign (975–978), he was murdered at Corfes Gate, in Dorsetshire. The popular but doubtful story is that Edward rode, hot and weary with the chase, to his stepmother's gate, and asked her for drink. Elfrida gave him the cup with her own hands, and, while the young king drank eagerly, she made a sign to an attendant, who stabbed him in the back. Edward set spurs to his horse, but he fell from the saddle and was dragged by the stirrup till he died, leaving the track marked with his blood. Elfrida, conscience-stricken, retired to a convent, after her crime had given England the worst king that reigned between Egbert and the Norman Conquest.

14. ETHELRED II. was surnamed the UNREADY, by a play upon his name, which too well expressed his character and ill-fortune.* He has been fairly described as the only thoroughly bad king of the line of Egbert. As the only direct surviving heir, he was elected, though but ten years old, to succeed his brother Edgar, and he reigned for thirty-eight years of unceasing confusion and disaster (978–1016). In the very year after his accession (980) the Danes began the *third series* of their invasions, in which they had now the fixed purpose to conquer England. Ethelred adopted the foolish policy of attempting to buy off the Danes, but the sums they thus received only invited them to return. To raise the necessary money, England was burdened with the oppressive tax called the *Danegeld* (“Dane-tribute”).

Like most of our bad kings, Ethelred had pernicious favourites; and one of them advised the *Massacre of the Danes* on St. Brice’s Day (November 13, 1002). Among the victims was Gunhild, sister of Sweyn, King of Denmark. The opening year brought with it the avenger of blood; and by the end of 1013 Sweyn had succeeded in conquering the whole country. Ethelred fled to Duke Richard the Good, of Normandy, whose sister Emma he had married. SWEYN was acknowledged as king of England; but he died in a few weeks, without being crowned, February 1014. Therefore he is not reckoned in the list of our kings; but the old English writers call him SWEYN THE TYRANT.

15. The Witan now recalled Ethelred, on his promise of better government (at Lent, 1014); and his son Edmund, surnamed *Ironside*, continued the struggle against Canute,† son of Sweyn. Ethelred died at London soon afterwards (April 23, 1016), and EDMUND IRONSIDE was elected king by the citizens of London and such of the Witan as were there; but many of the chief men of the south went to

* *Ethel-reðl* signifies “noble” or “princely in counsel;” *un-reðl*, “want of counsel.” *Rede* is still used as a poetical word for “counsel.”

† His name is properly *Chut*.

CANUTE at Southampton and acknowledged him as king. Thus for seven months there were two kings. After several battles, the kingdom was divided between them. But the treaty was scarcely made, when Edmund died (November 30, 1016); and so ended the Danish wars.

16. CANUTE (1016-1035) now succeeded, says the Chronicle "to all the kingdom of the English race." He married Emma, the widow of Ethelred the Unready. Canute had become a Christian; and, though his early life had been stained with cruelty and crime, his reign was just and clement, and his character grew truly noble.

A beautiful story tells how, when his flatterers extolled his power, Canute ordered a chair to be placed for him on the sea-shore at Southampton, as the tide was coming in. Thus seated, he shouted to the flowing sea, "Thou, too, art subject to my command, as the land on which I am seated is mine. I command you, then, not to flow over my land, nor presume to wet the feet and the robe of your lord." As the tide still came up, and dashed over his feet and legs, Canute leaped backwards, and said, "Let all men know how empty and worthless is the power of kings, for there is none worthy of the name but He whom heaven, earth, and sea obey by eternal laws."

Canute was a great friend of the English clergy and monasteries. He had a special liking for the Abbey of Ely, whither he was wont to go and keep some of the great feasts. Once as he was crossing the mere, which then made an island of the hill now crowned by the minster, the voices of the monks singing in the choir came so sweetly across the water, that Canute forthwith poured forth his delight in a song, of which the first verse is still preserved. Canute not only spoke and sang in *English*, but governed according to the English laws; and from his time the Danish settlers were absorbed into the English nation.

Canute divided England into the four great Earldoms of Northumberland, East Anglia, Mercia, and Wessex. The Earldom of Mercia was given to LEOFRIE, and that of Wessex to GODWIN. These two English Earls and their

sons play the foremost part in the remaining history down to the Norman conquest. After a war between England and Scotland, Malcolm II., king of Scots, did homage to Canute, together with two under-kings, in one of whom we recognize the famed MACBETH of Shakspere.

17. While Canute was king of England, he had added Norway and part of Sweden to his Danish kingdom. He was succeeded in Denmark by *Sweyn*, the elder son of his first wife, and in Norway by *Hardicanute*, his son by Emma. After much dissension in the Witan, England was divided between Canute's second son by his first wife, HAROLD, surnamed HAREFOOT from his fleetness, and Hardicanute. Harold had the country north of the Thames, and Hardicanute that south of the river. The latter was the Earldom of Godwin, who ruled it with Emma, as Regent for her son, while Hardicanute remained in Denmark.

The late King Ethelred's two sons by Emma, Edward and Alfred, who were now of full age, were left in Normandy; but Alfred, the younger and bolder, resolved to go to his mother at Winchester, doubtless with a view to press his own and his brother's claims. He was met by Godwin at Guildford, and was either seized by, or betrayed to, the servants of Harold. They carried Alfred to Ely, where his eyes were put out, and he was soon after murdered. His followers were seized and tortured, blinded, mutilated, and killed, or sold as slaves. The murder of "the innocent Atheling" was laid at Godwin's door, but the question of his guilt is still in dispute. As Hardicanute did not come to England, he was deposed in the following year, and his mother Emma was driven out, "without any kind of mercy, against the stormy winter." Harold died after a reign of five years (1035-1040).

18. HARDICANUTE (1040-1042) was now welcomed back to England; but he proved a drunken and cruel despot. He died in the very act of raising the cup to his lips at a feast. With him closed the brief dynasty of Canute, whose line came to this ignoble end twenty-six years after he had conquered England.

CHAP. VII.—END OF THE OLD ENGLISH KINGDOM—
THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

EDWARD THE CONFESSOR AND HAROLD II. A.D. 1042–1066.

19. THE line of Cerdic was restored in the person of EDWARD, surnamed the Confessor, son of Ethelred (1042–1066). He was, however, more of a foreigner than Canute, having been brought up in Normandy from his childhood. He spoke the French tongue; and his followers and favourites, on whom he bestowed honours and bishoprics, were Normans and Frenchmen. His virtues were entirely monastic, and his only manly taste was a passion for hunting. The creation of a strong Norman party in England, in bitter opposition to the great English leaders, was the true beginning of the Norman conquest.

It is now needful to know who the NORMANS were. Their name is the same as *Northmen*; and they came, like the Danes, from Scandinavia, and spoke a language very like the English. But the body of sea-rovers, whom ROLF THE GANGER led into the peninsula which is still called from them *Normandy*, adopted the language of their French neighbours, and they excelled in French poetry. They formed a powerful state under their Dukes, the greatest of whom, WILLIAM (born 1027), had succeeded his father in 1035. After wars and rebellions during his minority, he fully established his power in 1047, and greatly enlarged his Duchy.

While newly seated on his throne, Edward yielded naturally to the vast influence of Godwin, whose daughter Edith he married. All real power in England was now divided between the three great Earls, Godwin of Wessex (including all England south of the Thames), Leofric of Mercia, and Siward the Dane, of Northumbria; and the power of Godwin was shared and increased by his many sons. The Norman nobles, on the other hand, whom Edward brought into England, began building those castles which became, for a hundred years, the great strongholds of cruelty and oppression.

An accident struck the spark to kindle the heaped-up fuel of discontent. The king's sister, Godiva, married Eustace, Count of Boulogne. On the Count's landing at Dover, the arrogance of the foreigners led to a murderous fray, and Godwin was ordered by the king to chastise the city, which was in his Earldom. His refusal led to an open quarrel. Leofric, the Earl of Mercia, persuaded both sides to submit the quarrel to the *Witan*, at London, who outlawed Godwin and his sons (1051). It appears to have been just at this time that William, Duke of Normandy, visited England, and received (as he said) a promise of the crown from Edward. However true the story may be, the law of England gave the king no power to appoint his successor. That power belonged only to the *Witan*.

In the following year, Godwin and his sons sailed up to London with a fleet. The king was obliged to submit. His French favourites fled, and were outlawed by the *Witan*, who restored Godwin and his sons to their estates and honours. But the English party had scarcely gained the upper hand, when Godwin died suddenly, having been seized with a fit at the king's Easter Feast (1053).

Harold, the son of Godwin, succeeded to his father's earldom, and to more than his power in the whole kingdom; for the king liked him better than Godwin. In the next year there was a great war in the north, which is interesting from Shakspere's tragedy of *Macbeth*. We must not, however, be startled at learning that the real Duncan, and Macbeth and his wife, and Earl Siward, are in many points unlike those of Shakspere. The purpose of poetry is quite different from that of history.

It seems that Duncan I., having succeeded his father, Malcolm II., in 1034, fell, while still a young man, in battle with the under-king Macbeth, who had a claim to the throne of Scotland (1039). The fierce warrior, Earl Siward, undertook to avenge Duncan, whose wife was his kinswoman. He led a great English fleet and army into Scotland in 1054; defeated Macbeth after a bloody battle, and proclaimed Malcolm III. Canmore (*i.e.* "Greathead"),

the son of Duncan, as king ; but Malcolm had still to fight for the kingdom with Macbeth and his son Lulach till 1056. Meanwhile Earl Siward died in the year after his victory, and his Earldom was given to Tostig, the brother of Harold.

In the same year, Edward, who was still childless at the age of fifty-two, sent an embassy to the Emperor Henry III., to ask that the Atheling* Edward, son of Edmund Ironside, might return home. Edward was about thirty-nine, and had three young children, Edgar, Margaret, and Christina ; so that the English had a joyful hope of the revival of the line of Cerdic. But "Edward the Stranger," as he was called from his long absence, died at London in the same year that he returned to England. The prospect of the succession now hung on the infant life of Edgar the Atheling ; and the rival claims of Duke William and Harold became more and more apparent. An accident gave William a great advantage. Harold, driven by stormy weather upon the French coast, was received with honour by William, though as a prisoner. But the Duke exacted from the Earl a promise to aid him in obtaining the English crown on Edward's death, and to give up to him the castle of Dover. It was agreed, further, that Harold should marry one of the Duke's daughters, and hold his Earldom as William's vassal. Harold, in presence of the assembled lords of Normandy, laid his hand upon a chest covered with a cloth, and swore to keep these terms. No sooner was the oath taken, than William removed the cover, and showed that the chest held the most sacred relics, collected from all the Norman churches. Harold turned pale, for he had been entrapped into an oath in the most binding form known to the men of that age.

The last year of Edward's reign was marked by a revolt which, in its results, sealed the fate of England. The men of Northumberland rebelled against the severe government of Tostig ; and Harold was obliged to consent to the banish-

* This word (properly *Aetheling*) means "son of the noble," and was the title of the descendants of a king.

ment of his brother, who went to Flanders. King Edward was now sick to death; and his thoughts were bent on completing the great church of St. Peter, which he had vowed to re-build at Westminster. It was already finished when the Witan held their Christmas meeting at London, but Edward was too ill to attend its consecration on Innocents' Day, or Childermas (December 28). He died on January 5, 1066, and was buried in his new church, where the shrine of St. EDWARD THE CONFESSOR stands behind the high altar of the Minster, which was rebuilt by the one of his descendants who was most like him, Henry III.

20. HAROLD, son of Godwin, was now elected King by the Witan, in accordance with Edward's last wish. It would have been madness to oppose to William the stripling Edgar in place of the warrior Harold, "the tallest and strongest of the English." Harold reigned not quite nine months (January 6 to October 14, 1066).

William sent an embassy to Harold, to remind him of his oath, and to demand that Harold would give up the kingdom, or at least that he would marry the Duke's daughter, and hold England as William's vassal. Harold answered that his oath was void: the kingdom of England was not his to give, but it belonged to the English people, who had chosen him as their King; nor could an English king marry a foreign wife but by consent of the Witan. These reasons could only be understood in England; and it was easy for William to hold up Harold before the eyes of the Pope and Christian Europe as a hateful usurper, who had forsaken himself on the most sacred reliques.

William spent the summer in preparations worthy of his object. A great fleet was built; and the Norman Barons were called out, with the promise of the lands of all England for themselves and their followers. Adventurers from all Europe were gathered by the hope of plunder, under the consecrated banner sent to William by the Pope.

Meanwhile the exiled Tostig, bent upon revenge because

Harold had consented to his banishment, crossed over to Norway to King *Harald Hardrada*,* who was tempted by the offer of the kingdom of England ; and he set sail with a vast fleet and army. At the mouth of the Tyne he was joined by Tostig, with forces gathered from Scotland and Ireland. King Harold hurried to the north with all the forces he could raise, and routed the Norwegians in the great *Battle of Stamford Bridge*, near York. Both Harald Hardrada and Tostig were killed ; and the Norwegians agreed to sail back home (September 25).

Two days later, William set sail from St. Valéry on the Somme, and next day he landed unopposed in the bay of Pevensey, in Sussex (September 28). As the Duke set foot on the soft sand, he slipped and fell ; but he rose with his hands full of the sand which he had grasped in falling, and exclaimed that he had taken hold of the land of England. He then marched on to *Hastings*, where he built a fort of wood, and stayed there, ravaging the country.

An English thane, who had seen the landing, rode night and day to carry the news to Harold, who was resting at York after the battle. The king hastened back to London, summoning the forces of England to meet him ; but he did not wait for their gathering. After staying about a week in London, he marched southwards, and took up the memorable position of SENLAC, the hill where *Battle Abbey* was erected by the Conqueror. Harold surrounded his camp with a palisade, crowned by a sort of shield of wattled branches, as a defence against the Norman arrows. His army, which fought wholly on foot, was formed in three lines, the King and his brothers taking up their position in the centre, between his own new banner and the Golden Dragon of Wessex. The spot where the standards were set up was afterwards marked by the high altar of the Abbey. Here the English army spent the night of Friday, the 13th of October, in revelry and feast ing, cheering their courage with their old songs ; while

* *Harald* is only another form of *Harold*. *Hardrada* means *hard in rede*, that is, “the stern in counsel.”

the Normans, in Hastings, were confessing their sins, and receiving the blessing of their priests.

Early on Saturday, the 14th of October, William led out his men to the battle, which decided the destiny of England for all future time. His army, like Harold's, was in three divisions; but his chief force was in his cavalry, or "men-at-arms," as the mail-clad horsemen were called. William rode on a splendid charger, wearing round his neck some of the relics on which Harold had sworn. A Norman minstrel, Taillefer, rode in front, singing to his harp the famous song of Roland, the paladin of Charles the Great. Under the cover of a flight of arrows, the Norman horse and foot tried with all their might to break through the palisade. But they fell back before the terrible blows of the English axe, which none plied more mightily than Harold. As they fled down the hill, the English troops pursued them, against the strict orders of the King.

Seeing this, William resolved, after long hard fighting had failed to break the English ranks, to tempt them again with a false show of flight. The stratagem succeeded; and the Normans, turning back on the disordered pursuers, forced their way through the palisade. But Harold's body-guard still stood round their king in unbroken ranks; and the short autumn twilight was closing in, when William devised another stratagem. He ordered his archers to shoot up into the air, so that the arrows, which had been spent in vain on the English "shield-wall," might rain down into their midst. One of the first shafts thus sent pierced Harold in the right eye; and he fell, disabled by pain, between his two banners, where he had fought through all the battle. Still the faithful troops closed round their wounded king, till a band of Norman knights, who had vowed to take the standard, cut their way through, and killed and mangled Harold where he lay. His brothers, Gyrth and Leofwine, had fallen earlier in the battle.

Next day, Sunday, the dead were buried, and the English peasants were allowed to carry away the bodies of their

friends. Harold was sought for in vain by two monks, who had followed him from his lately founded Abbey of Waltham. It is said that the corpse, though too much defaced to be discovered by these faithful friends, was recognized by a lady whom Harold had loved in his youth, the "Swan-necked Edith." The Conqueror ordered the body to be laid beneath a cairn of stones, as a sign of execration on the perjurer; but he afterwards permitted its removal to Waltham Abbey. There, before the choir was pulled down, a tomb was shown, with the inscription —*HIC JACET HAROLDUS INFELIX*, "Here lies ill-fated Harold.

Though the *Battle of Hastings* had sealed the fate of England, the country had yet to be conquered. The power of midland and northern England was unbroken, and the two great Earls now came to London, and joined with the citizens and fleet, and such of the Witan as could be assembled, in electing EDGAR THE ATHELING king.* But the Londoners saw resistance to be useless; and, upon William's approach, they went forth with Edgar, to make their submission to the Conqueror.

On Christmas Day, 1066, William, Duke of the Normans, was crowned by Eldred, the English Archbishop of York, as "King of the English," in the Abbey church of Westminster, which had been hallowed by King Edward a year before. The Norman historian, who was William's own chaplain, says plainly that William was "elected king;" and the Chronicle tells us that, "before Archbishop Eldred would set the crown upon his head, he pledged him on Christ's book (the Gospels); and he swore that he would govern this nation as well as any king before him had best done, if they would be faithful to him." Such was the truly *English* form and spirit in which William received the crown that he claimed as the heir of Edward the Confessor. The new ideas and forces, then grafted on the life of the old English stock, made England and Britain what they are.

* As Edgar was not crowned, he is not reckoned in the list of the English kings; for a king did not become such till he was "hallowed" by the Church, and accepted by the acclamations of the People.

CHAP. VIII.—THE NORMAN KINGS.

FROM A.D. 1066 TO A.D. 1154.

1. WILLIAM I. .. 1066-1087	3. HENRY I. .. 1100-1135
2. WILLIAM II. .. 1087-1100	4. STEPHEN .. 1135-1154

Section I.—WILLIAM I. THE CONQUEROR.

FROM DECEMBER 25, 1066, TO SEPTEMBER 9, 1087.

Born, 1027. Reigned, 21 years. Age, 60.

THE Norman Conquest of England was not completed till five years after William's coronation at Westminster. In the spring of 1067 he visited Normandy, taking with him Edgar the Atheling, and others who might have headed a revolt. But the friends he left behind to govern proved more dangerous still. The martial Bishop Odo and William Fitz-Osbern built castles and oppressed the people, who now began to rebel. William returned in wrath, declaring that the English had broken their faith, and freed him from his promises to them; and henceforth he treated England as a conquered country. Many estates were at once taken from their owners, to reward the followers to whom William had promised the spoil of England; and at a later period the whole land was taken into the king's possession, and divided into 60,000 holdings (called *feuds* or *fiefs*). These were granted almost exclusively to William's foreign knights, to be held on the condition of rendering military service for forty days in each year to the King, who had certain other important rights over the tenants and their property. These *tenants-in-chief*, or *Barons*, who held their lands direct from the King, made grants to under-tenants on similar terms. The grantor of the land was called *Lord*; the person who held under him was his *Vassal*; and the King was the *Lord Paramount* or *Suzerain* (the same word as *sovereign*). The grant was made by a form called *investiture*, and the vassal did *homage* for it on his bended knee.

This mode of tenure was called the *Feudal System*. It secured a landed Nobility. But the whole constitution was based on the principle, which the kindred races of Germans and Northmen had always held, that all free-men were equally free; and the sovereign is only the first among his Peers (*Pares*, the Latin for “equals”). From this privilege of equal freedom one class was excluded; the wretched slaves, called *serfs* or *villeins* (from the Latin words *servus*, “slave,” and *villanus*, “belonging to a *villa* or farm”). Most of the English *Ceorls*, or commonalty, became the serfs of their Norman masters, and their old name passed into the degraded sense of *churl*; while the few *Eorls*, or nobles, who retained their property, were brought down to the rank of petty freeholders (*Franklins*).

But the subject race far outnumbered their conquerors, who professed from the first to respect the old English laws, and gradually found it necessary to adopt the English language. The husbandmen and traders gained more and more upon the military nobles, to whom they were needful. The growth of commerce and towns, the foreign wars and domestic conflicts of the ruling race, the wise policy of some kings and the weak tyranny of others, all helped to restore the English people to their ancient freedom; and by the time that this was done, English and Normans had become blended in one nation.

To return to the completion of the Conquest. Edgar the Atheling fled to Scotland, and made an alliance with Malcolm III., who married his sister Margaret (1067). Northumberland revolted, and Edgar appeared at York; but, on the approach of William, Edgar returned to Scotland, and Malcolm did homage to the Conqueror (1068). Next year, a powerful fleet sailed from Denmark to the Humber; Edgar came back, and rekindled the Northumbrian insurrection; the Castle of York was demolished, and 3,000 Normans who formed the garrison were massacred. William recovered York, where he spent the winter, while the Danes lay in the Humber till they were bribed to go away. A terrible act of vengeance

provided at once against their return and against invasion from Scotland. The whole eastern part of Yorkshire, from the Humber to the Tees, a space of more than sixty miles, was utterly laid waste ; the fruits and grain were destroyed by fire and water ; and the inhabitants were slaughtered, to the number of 100,000. The king returned to keep Easter at Winchester, where a Council was held to depose Archbishop Stigand and the other English prelates. The primacy was conferred on the learned LANFRANC, an Italian by birth, and William's close friend and counsellor.

The last refuge of English freedom was in the Isle of Ely, where a “Camp of Refuge” was formed by the gallant young HEREWARD, who was joined by many other English leaders. It was not till William himself brought up an army and a fleet of boats, and built a causeway across the fens, that the Camp surrendered, with all its chief defenders, except Hereward and the followers whom he led off with great valour. Hereward's noble conduct gained him honourable terms of submission ; but many of the other captives suffered death or cruel mutilation (1071).

The Conquest of England was no sooner complete, than new troubles sprang up in the king's own family. At the time of the Conquest he had three sons, Robert, Richard, and William ; Henry, the fourth son, was born afterwards, at Selby, in Yorkshire (1068). Richard was killed in the New Forest whilst still a youth. Robert, surnamed *Court-hose* (“short-legged”), was of a generous and easy, but rash and violent temper. When his father set sail for England, Robert was left in Normandy, and the nobles were required to swear fealty to their Duke's young heir. When Robert came of age, he was prompted by the French king, Philip I., to demand full possession of the Duchy. William replied, “It is not my custom to lay aside my clothes till I go to bed.” Stung by the taunt, quite as much as he was moved by ambition, Robert rebelled against his father, who besieged him in the castle of Gerberoi. In a fight before the walls, Robert struck down a knight, in whose cry of pain from under his visor the

young Duke recognized his father's voice. Robert, smitten with remorse, lifted up William upon his own horse, and knelt down to beg his forgiveness; but the stern father turned and rode away in silence (1078). Robert was afterwards reconciled to his father by the Pope, and was confirmed in the duchy of Normandy; but William refused to see his face to his dying day. It was about the time of this war, that William built the central part of the *Tower of London*, called the "White Tower."

William put down all resistance, as a Norwegian bard sang, "with cold heart and bloody hand." A writer in the Chronicle, who had seen the Conqueror at his own court, says that "he was a very stern and fierce man, so that no one durst do anything against his will." But he adds, "Among other things is not to be forgotten *the good peace that he made in this land.*" The writer also tells us how "*Brytland* (Wales) was in William's power, and he thereon wrought castles, and completely ruled over that race of men. In like manner he subjected Scotland to him by his great strength; and if he might have lived two years, he would by his valour have won Ireland without any weapons." Now for the other side of the picture:—"Certainly in his time men had great hardship and very many injuries. Castles he caused to be made, and poor men to be greatly oppressed. The king was so very stern, and took from his subjects many a mark of gold and more hundreds of pounds of silver with great unright for little need."

Then follows a complaint of the merciless *Forest Laws*, which formed one of the greatest grievances of the English, till the Great Charter was extorted from King John. The name of the *New Forest*, in Hampshire, still preserves the memory of William's extension of the old "Wood of the Jutes," where he is said to have demolished the villages and churches for a space of thirty miles. The place was believed to have a curse on it for the Conqueror's family: there his sons Richard and William, and his grandson Henry, met early and violent deaths,

Much has been made of another oppressive Norman law, requiring all lights and fires to be extinguished on the ringing of a bell at a fixed hour in the evening. The *Curfew* (French *courre-feu*, “fire-cover”) was a large metal extinguisher, which was placed over the fire upon the hearth. The law was general throughout Europe, as a precaution against fire, at a time when all houses were built of wood ; and in those days of early hours the “curfew bell” was the signal of evening prayer and bed-time. But the English resented the interference with their homes, which may often have been made a pretext for prying visits and harsh penalties.

“He reigned over England,” says the Chronicler, “and by his sagacity so thoroughly surveyed it, that there was not a hide of land within England that he knew not who had it, or what it was worth, and afterwards set it in his writ.” This writ was the famous *Domesday Book*, made in 1086, which we still possess in the original handwriting.

In the last year of his reign, the Conqueror went to war with Philip I. of France, who had fomented a rebellion in the town of Mantes on the Seine ; and, what made William quite as angry, King Philip had made a jest on his corpulence. William conducted the war with his wonted cruelty. Mantes was given up to fire and pillage, and the king himself was directing the work of vengeance, when his horse plunged among the hot embers, and flung the heavy rider forward on the high pommel of the saddle, inflicting an internal injury which proved mortal. The proud Conqueror, thus miserably smitten with death, was carried to a convent in Rouen, and his sons William and Henry were summoned to his death-bed. In agony of body and mind, he bewailed all the sins into which he had been driven, from his stormy youth to his last ruthless deed ; he ordered the churches of Mantes to be rebuilt, and treasures to be divided among the churches and the poor of England ; and he directed his state prisoners to be released. He confirmed the succession of the absent Robert to Normandy, as his natural inheritance ; gave

orders to have William crowned King of England; and left Henry 5,000 pounds of silver. "What use is the treasure to me," cried the youth, "when I have neither lands, nor house, nor home?" "Take comfort, my son," said William; "perhaps one day thou wilt be greater than all." His two sons hastened off to secure crown and treasure; and when William died, early on the 8th of September, 1087, his servants plundered his very chamber and bed, and left his corpse uncovered on the bare floor. Nor was the Conqueror suffered to rest in his own Abbey church at Caen, till the funeral service had been interrupted by a Norman, who came forward to claim the grave as his own land, wrongfully taken from him by the Duke whom they were laying there. The priests and nobles paid down the price, and then William was laid in the grave.

Section II.—WILLIAM II. RUFUS.

FROM SEPTEMBER 26, 1087, TO AUGUST 2, 1100.

Born, 1060 (?). Reigned, 13 years. Age, 40 (?).

WILLIAM II., surnamed Rufus, "the Red," from the colour of his hair, was crowned by Archbishop Lanfranc on the 26th of September, 1087. He was the pupil of that prelate, whose death in two years removed all check upon the king's tyranny and contempt for law and religion.

In the first year of William's reign, a formidable insurrection on Duke Robert's behalf, headed by many Norman Barons, was put down by the help of the English, to whom Rufus promised relief from their oppressions. The war which ensued in Normandy was ended by an agreement that, if either of the two brothers died without children, the other should succeed him both in England and Normandy. During William's absence, Malcolm Canmore, King of Scotland, invaded England, with his brother-in-law, Edgar the Atheling. William hastened back, and a

peace was concluded, by which *Cumberland* was ceded to England, and colonized by rustic Englishmen, with their wives and cattle. From this time the county, which still preserves the name of the *Cymry*, gradually lost its Welsh character.

Almost every year, we read of a “heavy time” through grievous taxes, famine, and the exactions of William’s soldiery. It was his constant custom to keep bishoprics and other church livings vacant, that he might take their income. Thus, after the death of Lanfranc, he appointed no successor to the see of Canterbury for four years, till a severe illness caused him, in terror and remorse, to send for ANSELM, and almost force the archbishopric upon him (1093). Anselm was an Italian, like Lanfranc, whom he even surpassed in learning and piety. But the fierce and profane king soon quarrelled with the Primate, and Anselm was driven into banishment (1097).

In November, 1095, all Europe was stirred by the resolution taken at the great Council held at Clermont, in Auvergne, to deliver the holy city of Jerusalem, and the sepulchre of Christ, from the power of the Mohammedians, whom the Christians called Pagans. Inflamed by the preaching of PETER THE HERMIT and the exhortations of Pope Urban II., kings, nobles, knights, and their followers bound themselves to the enterprise by the sign of a *red* cross sewn upon their breasts and mantles, from which they were called *Crusaders*. In the space of just two centuries there were *eight Crusades*, of which this was the first and most successful. Jerusalem was taken by storm (1099), and Christian kingdoms were set up at the holy city and at Antioch. Few among the Crusaders were more distinguished for zeal and valour than Duke Robert, who obtained the needful money by pledging Normandy to his brother. William never meant to give back the pledge, and he spent much of his last three years in Normandy, reducing the fortresses held for the king of France.

The Whitsuntide court of the year 1099 has a peculiar interest from being held for the first time in the new Hall

of the king's Palace at Westminster, which still stands, the noblest hall in Europe. *Westminster Hall* was repaired, and its grand roof put up by Richard II., but part of the walls built by Rufus may still be seen. In the same year, a second Norman prince, Henry, the son of Robert, was killed while hunting in the New Forest.

It is said that the Bishop of Rochester warned the king against venturing on the fatal ground; but after his Whitsun court in 1100, William went as usual to his hunting-lodge with his brother Henry, and, on the morning after Lammas Day, the king was found lying in the Forest with an arrow through his heart. The author of his death was never known. The Chronicle says simply that he was killed by his own men. Suspicion fell on two of his knights, Ralph de Aquis and Walter Tyrrell. The common people said that he had been carried off by the devil in the form of a black goat.

The group of hunters, who gathered at the alarm, dispersed to look after their own interests, Henry being among the first to ride off to Winchester, then the English capital. The bleeding corpse of Rufus lay alone under the oak, till a charcoal-burner placed it in his cart, and carried it to Winchester, where it was laid in a coffin of black stone, which is still to be seen in the Cathedral.

Section III.—HENRY I. BEAUCLERC.

FROM AUGUST 5, 1100, TO DECEMBER 1, 1135.

Born, 1068. Reigned, 35 years. Age, 67.

HENRY I., surnamed BEAUCLERC ("the fine scholar") from his love and patronage of learning, was elected by the Witan at Winchester two days after the death of Rufus, and he was crowned at Westminster on Sunday the 5th of August. The English cared nothing for the absent Duke of Normandy, and Henry solemnly promised that he would redress their grievances, and observe the laws of their ancient kings, which they fondly called "the good

laws of Edward the Confessor." His "Charter" to this effect is doubly memorable, as an example of the solemn compact between king and people which is the foundation of our monarchy, and as the pattern on which Archbishop Langton framed the "Great Charter" in the days of John.

Henry's favour with his English subjects was confirmed by his marriage with Matilda, the daughter of King Malcolm and Margaret, and niece of Edgar Atheling, "of the true royal line of England," as the Chronicler says. She well deserved the name which the English gave her, "the good queen Maud."

This marriage, however, made the Norman Barons more disposed to favour Robert, who returned home from Palestine in the autumn, and landed with an army at Portsmouth in the following year. Henry was too prudent to risk a battle with his untried English troops and his disaffected Norman chivalry. So a peace was made, by which Robert gave up his claim to England for a pension of 3,000 marks; and the succession to both kingdom and duchy was settled as it had been between Rufus and Robert. But Henry never meant to keep the treaty. After a long course of bad faith and aggression, he defeated Robert at the *Battle of Tenchebrai* (September 28, 1106), and subdued Normandy. Robert was brought a prisoner to England, where he died in Cardiff Castle, after a captivity of twenty-eight years (1134). Another prisoner taken at Tenchebrai was Edgar the Atheling, who had always been the faithful friend and brother-in-arms of Robert. Henry allowed his wife's uncle to ransom himself and retire to his estates. The last of the male line of Cerdic is said to have lived to see his father's great-grandson, Henry II., on the throne, and to have died in 1159. If this be true, Edgar must have lived more than a hundred years.

Henry had two children, a son, named William, and a daughter, Matilda, who were loved by the people as descendants of the line of Cerdic. Matilda was married to the Emperor Henry V., who left her a widow in 1125. But as William grew up, his vices and pride disappointed

the hopes of the English, for whom he professed both hatred and contempt. In his eighteenth year, he was with his father in Normandy, when Henry was preparing to return home from the port of Barfleur. A Norman sea-captain, named Fitz-Stephen, whose father had carried over the Conqueror to England, claimed the right of conveying the king in his "White Ship." Henry answered that his own passage was provided for, but he gave Fitz-Stephen the charge of his son and his treasures. Henry set sail in the afternoon; but William and his companions remained feasting till sunset, and shared their wine too freely with the crew. Some of the retinue were prudent enough to quit the vessel; and among them was young Stephen, the future king of England. At length the "White Ship" set sail, with her drunken crew as careless as her revelling passengers, and a current drifted her on a rock. Fitz-Stephen lowered the king's son into a boat, and bade the rowers pull off for the shore; but William heard the cries of his natural sister, Adela, from the sinking ship, and insisted on returning to her help. A rush was made into the boat, which instantly sank; and soon the "White Ship" went down, with 300 souls on board. Two only were floated safe away upon the mast; a young noble and a butcher of Rouen. Fitz-Stephen swam towards them, and asked if the king's son still lived; and, when told that he had perished, he threw up his arms and sank. The cold of the November night made the young noble drop off the mast; but the hardier butcher, whose name was Berold, was picked up in the morning by a fishing-boat.

When the fatal news reached Southampton, none durst break it to Henry, who was wondering at the delay of the "White Ship." At last a young page threw himself at the king's feet, and told him all. Henry sank down in a swoon, and from that day he was never seen to smile.

The good Queen Maud had died two years before, and Henry now married Adelais, the daughter of the Duke of Louvain. As she remained childless, his daughter

Matilda, whom the Emperor Henry V. had left a widow in 1125, was brought back to England ; and Henry caused his nobles to swear fealty to her as his successor. She was now married to young Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, and their son Henry, afterwards King Henry II., was born in 1133.

Henry I. died at Rouen, from a surfeit of lampreys, on the 1st of December, 1135. His body was brought to England, and buried in the Abbey of Reading. Henry's rule had been as firm and orderly as his father's, but not less marked by oppression and cruelty. The elegant culture, which won his surname, gilded over a licentious and perfidious character. But, with all his faults, he was one of our really great kings.

Section IV.—STEPHEN OF BLOIS.

FROM DECEMBER 26, 1135, TO OCTOBER 25, 1154.

Born, 1096. Reigned, 19 years. Age, 58.

WHEN the nobles swore fealty to the Empress Matilda, the first who took the oath was her uncle David I., King of Scotland and Earl of Huntingdon ; the next was STEPHEN, Count of Mortain and Boulogne, the second surviving son of Stephen, Count of Blois, and of Adela, fourth daughter of the Conqueror. Young Stephen and his brother Henry had been brought up at the court of Henry I., who had given the bishopric of Winchester to Henry ; and now Stephen hastened from Normandy, and declared that the late king had disinherited Matilda with his dying breath. Matilda was absent, and her son Henry was an infant ; while Stephen's courage and generosity had made him the most popular of the Norman nobles in England. He was well received at London, and his brother's influence gave him possession of the castle of Winchester, with the late king's vast treasure. Henry also won over the Archbishop of Canterbury, who crowned STEPHEN king at Westminster, on St. Stephen's Day (December 26, 1135).

The Chronicle gives another vivid picture of the misrule of England under the last king of the Norman line :—“ In this king’s time were all strife, and evil, and rapine; for against him soon rose the powerful men who were traitors. . . . When the traitors perceived that he was a mild man, and soft and good, and did no justice, then did they all wonder. They had done homage to him, and sworn oaths, but had held no faith. . . . Every powerful man made his castles, and held them against him, and they filled the land full of castles. They cruelly oppressed the wretched men of the land with castle works. When the castles were made, they filled them with devils and evil men. Then took they those men that they imagined had any property, both by night and day, peasant men and women, and put them in prison for their gold and silver, and tortured them with unutterable torture. . . . And this lasted the nineteen winters while Stephen was king; and ever it grew worse and worse. . . . However a man tilled, the earth bare no corn; for the land was all foredone by such deeds: and they said openly that Christ and his saints slept.”

This evil time produced two great men, DAVID I., king of Scotland, the youngest son of Malcolm and the English Margaret; and ROBERT, Earl of Gloucester. Earl Robert was the son of Henry I. and a Welsh princess, who was honoured by Henry as if she had been his wife, till his marriage with Matilda. To all the accomplishments of a Norman knight, Robert added the learning of his father, and to him were dedicated two of the historical works, which now begin to succeed the “ Chronicle”—the “ Acts of the English Kings,” by WILLIAM OF MALMESBURY, and the fabulous “ British History,” by GEOFFREY OF MONMOUTH. Robert was the loyal champion of his sister, though he took a conditional oath of allegiance to Stephen, and kept it till he was provoked to rebellion.

King David was bound by no such promise, and in 1138 he led an immense army into Northumberland. The fierceness and cruelty of his wild troops roused the clergy to what they deemed a sacred war. The forces of the

North were gathered under the consecrated banners of St. Cuthbert of Durham, St. Peter of York, St. John of Beverley, and St. Wilfrid of Ripon, which were all hung upon a pole, and fixed in a four-wheeled car. This *Standard* gave its name to the great battle near Northallerton, in which David, fighting under the Golden Dragon of Wessex, was utterly routed (August 22, 1138).

In the South, meanwhile, the attempt of Stephen to make some of the bishops give up their castles, and his seizure of Gloucester's lands, gave the signal for a Civil War, which raged for fourteen years. The Empress Matilda landed with her brother Robert in England in 1139. As long as Robert lived, he was the leader of his sister's party; and on his death, in 1148, Matilda retired from her personal share in the contest, in which her daring courage had been made fruitless by her unbending arrogance. Two years later, her son HENRY appeared upon the field. His mother had given up to him the Duchy of Normandy, to which Maine was added by his father's death; and his disgraceful marriage with Eleanor, the divorced wife of Louis VII. of France, enriched him with her vast inheritance of Poitou, Guienne, and the other provinces included under the name of Aquitaine. Thus Henry held a dominion in France, from the Seine to the Pyrenees, which made him more powerful than his suzerain, the king of France.

The way was now opened for his return to England. For EUSTACE, the eldest son of Stephen, had grown up a violent and profligate youth; and the demand of the king to have his son crowned led to a violent quarrel with the English bishops. Henry landed in 1053, and another civil war began. But the death of Eustace cleared the way for an agreement, by which Henry was to succeed to the crown on the death of Stephen. That event happened within a year (October 25, 1154); and the return of Henry to England, on the 6th of December, marks the end of the civil war and of the Norman line.



CHAP. IX.—THE PLANTAGENET LINE.

HENRY II. PLANTAGENET.*

FROM DECEMBER 19, 1154, TO JULY 6, 1189.

Born, March 1133. *Reigned*, 34½ years. *Age*, 56.

HENRY II., familiarly called “Shortmantle,” was twenty-one years old when he was crowned at Westminster, on the Sunday before Christmas (December 19, 1154).

All parties joined in welcoming the young king, and the English rejoiced in the descendant of Cerdic’s royal line. But no easy task was laid upon him. The peace mediated by the clergy contained the terms, that the castles were to be razed, justice was to be restored to its due course, and the other disorders of the late evil times were to be reformed. To do all this, the King must encounter the opposition of the Norman Barons, while the establishment of equal justice brought him into a far more formidable conflict with the clergy. Though the Church proved too strong for him, he was successful in curbing the power of the Barons, and in bringing England under a strong and orderly government. Henry’s great work was to establish the reign of law.

Henry had high qualities fitting him for his work, but marred by a great mixture of evil. His body was framed for unremitting activity; his countenance was rather keen than dignified; in his habits he was restless, and careless of how he ate, or drank, or dressed. He was wise and brave, but he preferred statesmanship to force: ambitious of enlarged power, but not at too great a cost; and more bent on securing what he had, than on new conquests. He was cruel, lascivious, greedy, and false; intensely selfish, and therefore most unfortunate in all his personal relations. In the second year after his accession, Henry

* The surname of *Plantagenet* was derived from the badge of a sprig of broom (in Latin *planta genista*) which was worn by Henry’s father, Geoffrey of Anjou. All the kings from Henry II. to Richard III. were Plantagenets.

wrested Anjou from his brother Geoffrey, and some years later he acquired the sovereignty of Brittany.

In England, he began by pulling down more than a thousand castles, and disbanding Stephen's foreign troops. He sent justices through the provinces, both to administer law and to regulate taxation. Hence arose the great institution of Justices on Circuit. Henry also regulated the "King's Court," from which have sprung our present courts of the *King's* (or *Queen's*) *Bench*, the *Exchequer*, and the *Common Pleas*. He gave the office of sheriff rather to lawyers and soldiers than to the great barons. By substituting a money payment called *scutage* ("shield money") for the military service due from the Barons, and by reviving the old English system of personal service in the militia, he got the military power of the State chiefly into his own hands, and was able to hire foreign mercenaries. He summoned and consulted the Great Council of the nation more regularly than heretofore; but this assembly had as yet no popular character. These and other important reforms and ordinances occupied a large part of Henry's reign, especially in his later years.

In his early government, Henry had a most able minister in THOMAS BECKET, Archdeacon of Canterbury, whom the king made Chancellor in 1155. Becket was a native of London, not (as is often said) of English, but of Norman race. He was now about thirty-six years old, strikingly handsome, equally skilled in learning, knightly accomplishments, and courtly arts; splendid and profuse in his retinue and style of living; the bosom friend and companion of the king in amusements as well as business. But Becket had a will as resolute as his master's. When Henry secured his appointment to the primacy, on the death of Archbishop Theobald (1162), Becket at once resigned the chancellorship, to show that he would not serve the King against the Church. At the same time, while keeping up the splendour of his household, he practised the utmost rigour in his own life, living on bread and water, wearing sackcloth next his skin, inflicting on himself the discipline

of the scourge, and daily washing the feet of thirteen beggars, whom he sent away with alms.

The great point at issue was the claim of the Church to judge and punish clergymen who broke the law, instead of their being brought before the king's courts. In one glaring case, Becket claimed to judge the offender, protected him from the king's officers, and sentenced him only to degradation from holy orders. Henry called a Council at Westminster, and demanded of the bishops whether they would observe the customs of the kingdom; and they answered that they would, "saving the rights of their order." This evasion only made the king more bent on a clear decision. Another Council, held at Clarendon, in Wiltshire, agreed on sixteen articles, which placed the clergy, their dignities and benefices, completely under the power of the king (1164).

The primate and the bishops were forced by threats to give a solemn consent to these "Constitutions of Clarendon"; but Becket forthwith obtained absolution from the Pope. He was now cited before a third Council, at Northampton, to give an account of all the money affairs of his chancellorship, and also to answer other charges. Condemned to a ruinous fine and forfeiture of his goods, he fled to France (1164), and lived there in exile for six years. His kindred and his friends, to the number of 400, women and children not excepted, were driven from home in the depth of winter, and bound by oath to go and show their misery to Becket. At length the Pope effected an apparent reconciliation between the King and the Archbishop. They met in France, and it was agreed that Becket should return to England. But a new cause of fatal quarrel had sprung up just before this meeting.

Fearing a sentence of excommunication from Pope Alexander III., who had taken the part of Becket with great warmth, Henry had resolved to join his eldest surviving son with himself as king. The young Henry, who was now fifteen, was crowned by the Archbishop of York, the Bishop of London, and other prelates. Becket at once procured

from the Pope a sentence of suspension against the bishops who had usurped his office; and Henry promised that Becket should repeat the ceremony. At their last meeting it was observed that the king avoided giving or receiving the customary “kiss of peace.”

Becket reached Canterbury on the 1st of December, 1170, amidst the joyous acclamations of the clergy and people, and he forthwith published the Pope’s sentence against the bishops. They repaired to the king in Normandy, “sharpening their tongues as swords” (says a chronicler of the time). At his Christmas court, Henry gave vent to his anger against Becket, and cried, “Of all the cowards that eat my bread, is there none that will rid me of this turbulent priest?” Next day, four knights were missing from the court. Their names were Reginald Fitzurse, William Tracy, Hugh de Morville, and Richard Brito. They appeared three days later at Saltwood, near Canterbury, the residence of one of Becket’s chief enemies.

Next day, Tuesday, December 29, the four knights came to the Archbishop’s palace, and demanded to see Becket on business from the king. After an altercation, they left him with threats, to which he answered, “Come when you may, you will find me here.” They soon returned with their armed followers, and knocked violently at the barred doors of the Cathedral, in which the priests had forced Becket to seek protection. He ordered the doors to be thrown open; and the knights rushed in, crying, “Where is the traitor?” Becket stood calmly with his back to a pillar, between two altars. “Here I am,” he said, “the Archbishop, but no traitor. What is your will?” They demanded absolution for those whom he had excommunicated, and threatened him with death. “I am ready to die,” said he, “for the cause of God and His Church.” They tried to force him from the pillar, so as not to slay him in the church; but he resisted, and sternly rebuked Reginald Fitzurse, who then struck a blow which wounded Becket in the head. Wiping away the trickling blood, and then joining his hands and bowing

his head in prayer, the Primate said, “Lord, into Thy hands I commend my spirit!” and the assassins finished their bloody work, and fled. On the last day of the year, the murdered Primate was buried with haste in the crypt of his cathedral; and three years later he was canonized as the martyred Saint Thomas of Canterbury.

The news of Becket’s murder filled Europe with horror, and plunged Henry himself into the deepest melancholy. He sent envoys to Pope Alexander, to protest his innocence; and he left Normandy, to complete the new conquest which some Norman adventurers had begun in IRELAND. This had been a favourite scheme with Henry from the beginning of his reign; and in 1156 he had obtained a Bull * from Adrian IV. (Nicholas Breakspear, the only Englishman that was ever a Pope), granting the sovereignty of the island to the king of England.

The Celtic clans of Ireland were now governed by their chiefs, in greater or less dependence on the five kings of Munster, Leinster, Meath, Ulster, and Connaught. One of these, Dermot Macmurrough, being expelled from his kingdom of Leinster for a gross outrage, had sought the protection of Henry in 1167. The king gave permission to his subjects to engage in the adventure, which was taken up by Richard de Clare, Earl of Pembroke (commonly called *Strongbow*), and two Normans of Wales, Fitzgerald and Fitzstephen. These two landed at Wexford, with a force of Norman horse and Welsh foot soldiers, on Midsummer Day, 1169. Next year they were followed by Strongbow, who took Dublin, and obtained the kingdom of Leinster by a marriage with Eva, the daughter of Dermot. Henry could not suffer a rival Norman kingdom to be set up in Ireland. Landing at Waterford with a great army (1171), he was acknowledged as sovereign by a synod of the Irish bishops at Cashel, which also reformed the Irish Church, bringing it in many points nearer to the Roman model.

With this acceptable offering for the Pope, Henry

* This was the name given to a decree of the Pope, from the golden ball (*bulla*) appended to it by way of a seal.

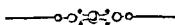
returned to Normandy, to meet the legates appointed to enquire into Becket's murder. His solemn oath to his innocence was accepted, and he received absolution (1172). But, two years later, he thought it prudent to satisfy the clergy by a pilgrimage to the tomb of the martyr Saint Thomas, where he submitted to a scourging from the clergy and monks of Canterbury. It was deemed a proof that Henry's penance was accepted when, on the same day, William the Lion, King of Scotland, was taken prisoner in battle at Alnwick. He was only released on doing homage to Henry, and surrendering five of his chief castles.

This invasion of the King of Scots was made in the cause of Henry's four sons, whose rebellions embittered the rest of their father's life. His eldest son, William, had died an infant in 1156. The king had conferred on *Henry* the Duchy of Normandy, on *Richard* that of Aquitaine, on *Geoffrey* that of Brittany, while for *John*, who was only six years old, he reserved the lordship of Ireland. Meanwhile, the want of any inheritance with his brothers fixed on John the nickname of *Lackland*, which was afterwards to have a bitterer meaning. The young Henry had been betrothed in his childhood to Margaret, the daughter of Louis VII. of France. On his reaching the age of eighteen, the marriage was completed, and the "young king" was again crowned with his queen (1173).

The profligate and jealous Queen Eleanor now stirred up her son to demand full possession of his rights, both in England and Normandy. Richard and Geoffrey, who were boys of sixteen and fifteen, also claimed their Duchies; and all three fled to the court of Louis, who took up arms on their behalf. Next year, peace was made, the youths submitted, and Eleanor was thrown into prison. But the fierce spirit of their race plunged the young men into new quarrels and wars in France, with their father and each other. The young king Henry died in 1183, while engaged with Geoffrey in war against Richard. In 1186, Geoffrey was accidentally killed in a tournament. Two years later, Richard made war upon his father in alliance

with Philip Augustus, King of France,* and Henry was forced to acknowledge Richard as his heir.

One condition of this peace was that Henry should pardon all who had taken part against him; and, when the list was brought to him on his bed of sickness, he found in it the name of his favourite son John. Stricken with mortal misery, he was carried to Chinon, and died bewailing his shame, and cursing his unnatural children (July 6, 1189). Next day, his body was carried to the tomb, laid in royal state, with the face uncovered, and Richard hastened to meet it. At his appearance, blood flowed from the nostrils of the corpse—a sign by which, as was then believed, the dead man revealed the presence of his murderer. The conscience-stricken son, weeping and groaning, followed his father to his tomb in the Abbey of Fontevrault, where he himself was laid ten years later at that father's feet.



CHAP. X.—RICHARD I. CŒUR-DE-LION (THE LION-HEARTED).

FROM SEPTEMBER 3, 1189, TO APRIL 8, 1199.

Born, September 13, 1157. *Reigned*, 9½ years. *Age*, 41½.

WHEN Henry died, Richard and the King of France were preparing their forces to go to the help of the Christians in the Holy Land. For SALADIN, the Sultan of Egypt, had taken Jerusalem (1187), and the Pope had proclaimed the *Third Crusade*. But first, Richard, having been received as Duke of Normandy, came to England, and was crowned on the 3rd of September, 1189. The festivity was disturbed by a massacre of the Jews, who ventured to mix with the people. The king extended his protection over the hated race, from whom he wished to obtain money for his Crusade; and for this same purpose he also racked his Christian subjects with extortion.

In 1190, Richard's fleet sailed from Dartmouth to join Philip Augustus in France. Their united armies amounted

* Philip Augustus succeeded Louis VII. in 1180.

to no less than 100,000 men, amongst whom were the best warriors of both kingdoms. After spending the winter in Sicily, where he quarrelled with Philip Augustus, Richard stayed on his voyage to conquer the island of Cyprus, and there he married Berengaria of Navarre.

In June, 1191, he arrived before Acre, which the other crusading forces were besieging. His daring courage and military skill, and his profuse generosity to the soldiers, soon made Richard the hero of the Crusade. His courteous enemy, Saladin, learning that Richard was ill with fever, sent him a present of choice fruit and snow from Lebanon. The siege of Acre was pressed with double vigour on his recovery ; and, on the 12th of July, the city surrendered upon terms. Philip, who was jealous of Richard, returned home on the plea of ill-health, having first taken an oath to do no injury to Richard's possessions in Europe. The whole toil and expense of the Crusade was left to Richard.

The Crusaders, attended by the fleet, now marched southwards along the coast of Syria, suffering terribly from heat and fever, from the rocky and sandy soil, the prickly shrubs, and the stings of innumerable insects ; while the swarms of the enemy's horse and archers harassed them in front, flank, and rear, and cut off every straggler. Never did Richard better show that skill as a commander, which is often forgotten in his personal daring. At length he gained a brilliant victory, which was followed by the capture of Jaffa (the ancient Joppa). Jerusalem, the great aim of the Crusaders, was now within forty miles ; but their numbers were thinned by sickness ; and, after reaching Bethany, the army was forced to retire with much suffering to Ascalon.

The spring brought Richard alarming tidings. He had left his kingdom in charge of the Bishop of Ely, and bound over his brother John, by oaths and benefits, not to enter England during his absence. But John had broken his promise ; and the faithless King of France was intriguing with him for the division of Richard's French possessions. About the same time, Conrad of Montferrat,

whom the Crusaders had named king of Jerusalem, was killed by the Old Man of the Mountain, the chief of a fanatical sect in Lebanon, whose name is preserved in the word *assassin*. The enemies of Richard accused him, without the least ground, of a share in Conrad's murder. Still he made one more march upon Jerusalem; and Bethany was reached for the second time, when the mutiny of the French soldiers compelled a final retreat (July 6, 1192).

As Richard was riding near the camp, a knight called to him to come to the brow of the Mount of Olives, and look upon Jerusalem. "But," says the historian of the Crusade, "the king covered his face with his mantle, and said, 'Blessed Lord God, I pray Thee not to let me see Thy Holy City, since I cannot deliver it from the hands of Thine enemies.'" The army had returned to Acre, when word was brought that Joppa was besieged by Saladin, and had promised to surrender. Its relief was the crowning and most brilliant feat of that daring valour, which for ages after left Richard's name as a byword of terror in the Eastern lands. Nurses used it to frighten children into silence; and an Arab rider would say to his stumbling horse, "Fool, did you think you saw King Richard?"

He made a truce with Saladin, securing to the Christians the cities of Joppa and Acre, with the sea-coast as far as Tyre, and freedom for those who went on pilgrimage to enter Jerusalem. He sailed from Acre in October, and took his way by the Adriatic, to avoid passing through France. Shipwrecked near Venice, the king travelled on under the name of "Hugh the merchant;" but his disguise was detected, and he was seized near Vienna by his enemy, Leopold, Duke of Austria, who sold his prize to the Emperor Henry VI. Richard was imprisoned in a castle; but the indignant voice of Europe compelled Henry to bring his captive before the Princes of the Empire, who acquitted Richard of all part in the murder of Conrad. The king's ransom was fixed at the enormous sum of 100,000 marks; and 75,000 marks were raised in England by most oppressive taxes. After every pretext of delay

had been exhausted by the Emperor, Richard landed at Sandwich, and was crowned anew at Winchester on the 17th of April, 1194.

He soon crossed over to Normandy, where John met him at the landing-place, and received a full pardon from his lion-hearted brother. A brilliant victory over Philip Augustus delivered Normandy, Maine, and Touraine from the French; but the war was continued, with some short truces, till the last year of Richard's reign, when the Papal legate mediated a peace (January 13, 1199).

The life, which had been exposed in so many hard-fought battles, was brought to an early and ignoble end before a petty fortress, in a quarrel with a rebellious vassal. Richard was besieging the castle of Chalus, in Poitou, when an arrow shot from the wall pierced him in the shoulder, and his unskilful surgeons made the hurt mortal. While he lay dying from the fever of the wound, the castle was taken, and the archer, Bertrand de Gourdon, was brought before the king. "Villain!" cried Richard, "wherefore hast thou slain me?" "Because," replied Gourdon, "you killed with your own hand my father and my brothers. Torture me as thou wilt! I shall rejoice at having freed the earth from a tyrant." The last generous impulse of the lion-hearted king bade his slayer to be set free with a present; but his enraged soldiers flayed Gourdon alive. The influence of Queen Eleanor prevailed on Richard to name John his successor. He died on the 8th of April, 1199, and was buried at Fontevrault, at the feet of his father, where he had stood a remorseful penitent ten years before.

The defaced effigy of Richard on his tomb at Fontevrault still shows the open countenance, fine features, and large eyes, which, with his fair complexion and hair, were the outward signs of his generous nature, marred as it was by the headstrong passions of his race. The giant strength of the arm which struck down every foe in the battle, "to him the breath of life," is famed in many a romance. Next to war, he loved the art of minstrelsy, and was no

mean proficient in poetry and music. Richard the Lion-hearted was the very pattern of a knight, and for fame and love of chivalry he sacrificed the welfare of his kingdom.

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CHAP. XI.—JOHN (LACKLAND).

FROM MAY 27, 1199, TO OCTOBER 19, 1216.

Born, December 24, 1166. *Reigned*, 17½ years. *Age*, 50.

JOHN, the fifth son of Henry II., had survived all his brothers, of whom only one had left a lawful son.

ARTHUR, the son of Geoffrey and of Constance, the heiress of Brittany, was now a boy of about fourteen. But the rule was not yet fixed, that a son, however young, should succeed his father on the English throne. At a Council held at Northampton, John was expressly declared to be *elected* as king of England; and he was crowned at Westminster on Ascension Day, May 27, 1199.

Philip Augustus acknowledged him as King of England, but used the claim of Arthur as a means of trying to obtain for himself the possessions of John in France. War was begun in 1202, when John gained a victory at Mirabeau, and young Arthur fell into his hands. The unhappy boy was shut up in prison at Rouen, and was never heard of more. Every one believed that Arthur had been murdered, some said by his uncle's own hand; and Philip Augustus adjudged John to have forfeited his French possessions. Normandy was conquered by the French; Anjou, Maine, and Touraine submitted willingly to Philip; and thus the continental dominions of the Conqueror were finally severed from the English crown (1201). The "Channel Islands" belong to England to this day, as the only remnant of William's Norman duchy. The loss was a real gain to the land and people of England. There were still left, however, the lands south of the Loire (Poitou and Guienne), which Eleanor had brought to Henry II.

A truce was made with France in 1206; but John had

plunged into a second and more serious conflict, with the Pope. On the death of Hubert, Archbishop of Canterbury, the monks of Christchurch elected a successor, but the king chose another person (1205). Pope INNOCENT III., set both aside, and appointed STEPHEN LANGTON, an Englishman of high character and great learning. The monks, who accepted Langton, were expelled by the king; and John disgusted both the clergy and the barons by imposing an enormous tax to raise mercenary troops (1207).

The Pope now placed England under an *Interdict*, which deprived the people of the services of the Church, except the baptism of infants and the absolution of the dying. Divine worship was suspended; marriages were only celebrated outside the churches; and the dead were buried without funeral rites, in ditches and waste places (1208). This sentence on the land was followed up next year by the excommunication of the king; but John only increased his exactations from the clergy.

With the hired troops levied by these means, John made successful war against William the Lion, King of Scots, and forced him to render homage and tribute to the King of England (1209). In the next year he crossed over to Ireland, and reduced the English settlers to obedience; and, the year after, he made a vigorous campaign in Wales. These acts prove that John was not destitute of energy, or of ability in war; but all his better qualities were spoilt by his utter want of principle; by an obstinacy which only seemed to yield to necessity, in order that he might fall back on treachery; and by reckless levity, licentiousness, and falsehood. His pitiless cruelty was shown on the captives taken in these wars, many of whom he is said to have starved to death.

Since neither the interdict nor the excommunication had subdued the King of England, the Pope proceeded to the last measure of absolving John's subjects from their allegiance. Philip Augustus eagerly prepared to execute the sentence of deposition, and the vassals of France were summoned to a second sacred war, like that led by William

the Conqueror 150 years before. John, deserted by the Barons whom his tyranny had outraged, was fain to protect his kingdom from Philip by yielding it up to the Pope. On his consent to receive Langton as Archbishop, and to annul his measures against the clergy and his other opponents, the sentences of interdict and excommunication were withdrawn.

But, beyond all this, John submitted himself and subjected England to a humiliation unheard of before or since. In a solemn interview with Pandulf, the Papal envoy, at Dover, John resigned his crown, and received it back as the vassal of the Pope (1213). He did homage for it to Pandulf, and promised, for himself and his successors, to pay an annual tribute to the see of Rome. Thus did John Lackland make good his nickname; for by this act the Pope was made owner and sovereign lord of England. But her free kings and people soon scorned the claim in practice; and a Parliament of Edward III. declared it null and void, just 150 years after John's death (1367).

The Pope now ordered the King of France to desist from his invasion, and Philip turned in fury against the Count of Flanders, the only vassal who had refused to follow him against England. John seized the opportunity to strike a vigorous blow, and the first naval victory of England since the Conquest was gained by the destruction of Philip's fleet at the Flemish harbour of Damme. John now indulged the hope of recovering his lost inheritance in France, and carried over an army to Poitou. But the war was decided by the victory of Philip Augustus at *Bouwines*, on the Flemish frontier; over John's allies, the Emperor Otho and the Count of Flanders (1214).

Before this decisive check abroad, the third great conflict of John's reign had begun at home: that conflict with the English nation, which secured the ancient liberties of England for all future time. John had set at nought the privileges of the Church and the rights of the Barons. He had plundered them and all his other subjects by fines as well as taxes. He had provoked the

rising power of the towns ; while the free peasantry were treated like serfs, and many were forced to become outlaws. The famous tales of Robin Hood and his merry men of Sherwood bear witness to the oppression exercised under the Forest Laws. It had been Henry's policy to make the King the protector of the English people against the French Barons, and the centre of a forced union between both classes. But the tyranny of John drove the nobles, the clergy, the towns, and all the people, into a union of self-defence against the king, his courtiers, and his hired soldiers.

Archbishop Langton gave their resistance a new force and object by producing the Charter of Henry I. (see p. 46) at a meeting of the Barons at St. Paul's, when all present swore to conquer or die in defence of their liberties. On the 20th of November, 1214, the Archbishop and the Barons met again at St. Edmondsbury, and agreed upon a set of demands, which they presented to the king at his Christmas court in London (January 6, 1215). John promised an answer at Easter, and attempted to divide his opponents by granting the clergy the free election of bishops.

When Easter came, without an answer, the Barons assembled their armed retainers at Stamford ; and, setting at nought the prohibition of the Pope, they marched into London on Sunday, May 24. Thence they despatched letters throughout England, declaring their resolve to treat as enemies all who refused to join "the army of God and of the Holy Church." Their commander was Robert Fitzwalter ; but their chief leader in council, next to Langton, was William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke.

Now that his capital was lost, and his crown in danger, John promised to grant the demands of the Barons, and a meeting was appointed at RUNNYMEDE, a field on the bank of the Thames between Staines and Windsor. On that memorable spot, John granted, for himself and his heirs for ever, the Articles presented to him by the Barons, which form the MAGNA CARTA, or GREAT CHARTER OF LIBERTIES of the English people (June 15, 1215).

This was no new gift, but a confirmation of the rights claimed as the ancient possessions of the Church, the Nobles, and the Commons of England. Of all such rights the most universal and the most sacred are those embodied in the thirty-ninth and fortieth clauses of the charter:—"No freeman shall be taken or imprisoned, or disseised, (*i.e.* dispossessed of his property), or be outlawed or banished, or in any way destroyed, nor will we pass upon him, nor let pass upon him (*i.e.* inflict any loss or hurt or allow any to be inflicted), save by the lawful judgment of his peers or by the law of the land. We will sell to no man, we will not delay or deny to any man, either justice or right." Such is the solemn recognition and lasting foundation of the great rights and safeguards of every Englishman, since extended to every subject of the British crown:—*personal liberty, security of property, judgment by each man's peers or equals, and the pure, prompt, impartial administration of justice;* while the common good is secured by the *supreme power of the law of the land.*

Another clause provided for the regular holding of the Great Council of the Realm, in order to levy taxes and do such other business as should be expressed in the summons. Here is the sanction of our *parliamentary system*, and the principle that *no taxes shall be imposed without the consent of the people.* The Charter confirmed the liberties of London and other chief cities and towns; nor did it omit to better the lot even of the villeins.

The Great Charter was confirmed between thirty and forty times in succeeding reigns. In the first year of Henry III. the "Charter of the Forest" abolished the chief severities of the Norman game laws (1217). The two Charters stand on our Statute Book in the form in which they were confirmed by Henry III. in 1225.

The short remainder of John's reign was spent in a treacherous attempt to snatch away the boon which he had only granted in bad faith. When the "army of God and the Church" was disbanded, he made a sudden attack

on the Barons with his foreign mercenaries, and exulted in their cruel ravages. This crowning act of perjury and tyranny provoked a party of the Barons to offer the crown to Louis the Lion, son of Philip Augustus (afterwards Louis VIII. of France). Landing at Sandwich in May, 1216, Louis received the homage of the Barons at London (June 2). But others of the Barons would not subject England to a foreign master; and they went over to John.

While Louis was besieging Dover, John took Lincoln, and stayed some days at Lynn. In marching along the Wash, he lost his baggage and treasures, and even his crown and sceptre, by the rapid rise of the tide. Seized with a mortal illness, he reached Newark only to die there, on the 19th of October, 1216. His body lies beneath a fine altar-tomb in the choir of Worcester Cathedral.

John had two sons, HENRY and *Richard*; and three daughters, all of whom made marriages of importance in our history. The eldest, *Joan*, was married to Alexander II., king of Scotland; the youngest, *Isabel*, to the Emperor Frederick II.; and *Eleanora* was the wife, successively, of the two great statesmen, William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke, and Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester.

CHAP. XII.—HENRY III. OF WINCHESTER.

FROM OCTOBER 28, 1216, TO NOVEMBER 16, 1272.

Born, October 1, 1207. *Reigned*, 56 years. *Age*, 65.

THE death of the tyrant John re-united most of the Barons in the cause of his infant son against the French claimant. William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke, caused HENRY III., who was just nine years old, to be crowned at Gloucester (October 28, 1216); and the English people were gratified by the confirmation of the Great Charter. Henry was crowned as the vassal of the Pope, and the papal legate excommunicated Louis for his refusal to retire from England. Hubert de Burgh gained a decisive victory over the French fleet off Dover; and Louis made a treaty with

Pembroke, and returned home (September 1217). When he afterwards succeeded to the crown of France (1223) his refusal to restore the French possessions lost by John, as he had promised, led to a series of wars with him and his son Louis IX., in which Henry gained no credit, and which it would be tedious to relate. A treaty was at length made, by which Normandy, and the other provinces north of Loire, were finally ceded to France, and Poitou and Guienne were restored to England (1243).

On the death of the wise and good Earl of Pembroke, who had governed as Protector (1218), the chief power was divided between PETER DES ROCHEES, Bishop of Winchester, as guardian of the king, and HUBERT DE BURGH, as Chief Justiciary. Des Roches, a native of Poitou, represented the foreign influence which finally triumphed, when Henry was induced to disgrace and imprison Hubert de Burgh. Des Roches filled all offices with Frenchmen; and Henry's marriage with ELEANOR OF POITOU brought in a new swarm of foreigners, as well as a fatal influence over the king's weak mind. His whole reign was marked by attempts to evade the Charter, and other acts of constant bad faith; by subservience to the Pope; and by exactions from the clergy, as well as from all other classes. Every new war, which disgraced England abroad, formed a new pretext for demanding money; and loans were wrung mercilessly from the Jews.

In 1256, the king's prudent and able brother, Richard, Earl of Cornwall, was elected "King of the Romans." His departure for Germany deprived Henry of his best protector against the Barons, who were openly resisting the King's misgovernment.

The leader of the Barons was a Frenchman by birth, who has won the fame of a martyr for the liberties of England. This was SIMON DE MONTFORT, the brother-in-law of Henry, who had created him Earl of Leicester. In 1258, De Montfort, with the Earls of Hereford and Gloucester and the Earl Marshal, exacted from the king a promise to reform the state. For this purpose Henry summoned a

Parliament at Oxford, to which the Barons came in arms with their retainers, and which is known as the “Mad Parliament” (1258). Here the King and Barons jointly named a commission of twenty-four barons and prelates, with De Montfort at their head, who took the government into their own hands. A series of reforms were enacted, called the “Provisions of Oxford,” which Henry and his elder son Edward swore to observe. The same oath was taken by Richard, Earl of Cornwall, on his return to England.

But this outward agreement was hollow, and there were discords within both parties. De Montfort had a rival in Richard de Clare, Earl of Gloucester; and Henry viewed his own son with the suspicion of a weak and treacherous mind towards a great and noble spirit. EDWARD, who was now in his twentieth year, was required to clear himself by a public oath from the suspicion of treasonable designs (1260). Henry procured the Pope’s absolution, for himself and his son, from the oath to observe the Provisions of Oxford; but Edward refused to accept the release from his sworn faith. The king seized the Tower of London, and levied mercenary troops from France; and so began what is called “THE BARONS’ WAR” (1261).

At length, on the 13th of May, 1264, a decisive battle was fought at Lewes between the royal army and the Barons, aided by the men of London. The king was defeated and taken prisoner; and his son Edward agreed to a treaty with the Barons, referring all disputes to a Parliament. Edward gave himself up as prisoner in his father’s place; but Henry, though treated as a free king, was wholly in De Montfort’s power.

The *Parliament of London*, which De Montfort summoned according to the treaty, is memorable as the first complete model of the English Parliaments of later times (January, 1265). For, besides the Prelates and Barons and Knights of the shire, the *cities* and *towns* were called upon to send each “two discreet, loyal, and honest men.” Thus Simon de Montfort stands forth in our history as the first who

put in practice *the direct representation of the Commons in Parliament*, to which Edward I. gave full effect.

Edward soon escaped from custody, and the war was renewed. On the 4th of August, the more decisive *Battle of Evesham* reversed the issue of that of Lewes. De Montfort, who brought the king into the field, and fought in his name, was killed; and Henry himself had a narrow escape. A knight of the royal army had already wounded him, when he cried from under the helmet that hid his face, “I am Henry of Winchester, your King.” The victory was disgraced by the savage mutilation of De Montfort’s corpse; but the common people long revered his memory, and miracles were believed to be wrought at the tomb of “St. Simon the Righteous.”

The remnant of his party held out, some in his castle of Kenilworth, and some in the isle of Ely, till they were subdued by Edward, who granted them the terms embodied in the *Award of Kenilworth* (1266). A Parliament held at Marlborough restored the king’s authority, but only on the condition that he would observe the Great Charter.

That authority was now really in the hands of the king’s son, Edward, whose just government, aided by his uncle Richard, soon restored perfect order. He had vowed during his captivity that, if he recovered his freedom and his father’s power, he would lead a Crusade against the infidels in Palestine. Accordingly, in July, 1270, Edward, who was now thirty-one years old, left England with his wife, ELEANOR of Castile, whom he had married in 1254. He was accompanied by his brother, Edmund Crouchback, Earl of Lancaster; and his children were left in the care of his uncle Richard.

Meanwhile, the *Eighth* and last Crusade had been opened by Louis IX.; and Edward went to join him before Tunis. On his arrival at the site of ancient Carthage, he found the French overwhelmed with grief for the death of their king, whose piety won for him the name of St. Louis. After wintering in Sicily, Edward sailed to Acre, and performed some brilliant feats of arms in Palestine.

As he was resting in his tent at Acre, a fanatic stabbed him with a poisoned dagger. Edward struck the assassin dead with a chair; and his devoted wife sucked the poison from the wound. Soon after his recovery, Edward made a truce with the Saracens, and left the Holy Land (1272).

Three months later, Henry III. died at Bury St. Edmund's (November 16), and was buried in the Abbey Church at Westminster, which he had rebuilt. Over his dead body, the nobles of their own free will took an oath of fealty to King Edward I., "though," says the chronicler, "men were ignorant whether he was alive, for he had gone to distant countries beyond the sea, warring against the enemies of Christ." The wise and able Richard, Earl of Cornwall, had died a few months before his brother; but his son Edmund undertook the government, with the Earl of Gloucester and the Archbishop of York. From this time it became the custom to date each new reign, not from the coronation, but from the "proclamation of the king's peace."

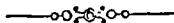
The long reign of Henry III. was a time of remarkable intellectual progress in Europe, in which England fully shared. The great political reformer, Simon de Montfort, had among his friends and counsellors two of the greatest men of letters of that age, *Robert Grossetête* or *Greathead*, Bishop of Lincoln, and the "Illustrious Doctor," *Adam Marsh*; and an Oxford friar, *Roger Bacon*, foreshadowed several great discoveries in Natural Philosophy, that of gunpowder among the rest.

This half-century, also, completed the union of the English and their Norman conquerors into one people, speaking the English tongue. The Norman kings and the first three generations of Plantagenets (including Henry III.) spoke only French, and this was the language of all public documents which were not in Latin. But, in 1258, Henry III. issued a proclamation in English, which still exists, and can be read with little trouble. Henry's own devotion to learning and art formed, next to his domestic virtues, the only good side of his character. It

was in his reign, and under his ardent patronage, that our native *English Architecture* reached that stage of perfect beauty which is seen in Westminster Abbey, and other great works at most of our cathedral cities.

NOTE ON PARLIAMENT.

THIS name signifies the *speaking body*, because they uttered the complaints and wishes of the people to the King. The president of each house is called the *Speaker*, because he speaks to the King in their name. It succeeded to the “Great Council” of Prelates and Nobles, and first obtained its true character in the way now described. The *name* of Parliament is first applied to that of 1294, since which time Parliaments have been regularly summoned. It consists of the *Three Estates of the Realm*, namely, the *Lords Spiritual*, the *Lords Temporal*, and the *Commons*. (It is a gross blunder to call the King, Lords, and Commons the Three Estates.)



CHAP. XIII.—EDWARD I. (LONGSHANKS).

FROM NOVEMBER 20, 1272, TO JULY 7, 1307.

Born, June 18, 1239. *Reigned*, 35 years. *Age*, 68.

“EDWARD THE FIRST *after the Conquest*” has been called “the greatest of the Plantagenets;” and he deserves to be called the greatest of the English kings, at least since Alfred. He came to the throne in the maturity of his age and powers; experienced and successful in war and government; and with a wide knowledge of foreign lands and men and institutions, acquired in France, Spain, Italy, and the Holy Land. In person he was conspicuous for dignity, and for the beauty of his fair countenance and flowing hair. The length of limb, which gave occasion to his popular by-name, his enormous strength, and his skill in knightly exercises, made him as superior to his enemies in personal combat as he was by his sagacity in the art of war. Edward was distinguished by the spirit of justice, which he exacted from the rulers of his people, and followed in his home and foreign policy; though he was sometimes less quick to see the rights of others than his own. His severity did not always stop short of cruelty, and, to those who crossed his will, he showed the

proud revengeful spirit of his race. He ventured on arbitrary measures, especially in the latter part of his reign ; but he always knew when to yield, and in his earlier and better years he led the way, of his own free will, in bringing the people to take part in the government. He settled the English law, and the administration of justice, on foundations which have lasted to the present day.

The great efforts which Edward made, to unite all Britain in one state, succeeded in Wales, but failed in Scotland. The means that he employed left in both nations a hatred of his memory. But the end aimed at was one of the highest and best for all Britain ; and the policy of Edward was supported by the English people in a full belief of its justice. His errors and cruelties towards the Scotch were punished by the failure which brought the great king's life to a miserable end, and postponed the union of North and South Britain till exactly four centuries after his death.

Edward was in Sicily, on his way from Palestine, when he received the news of his father's death and of his own proclamation. Assured of the loyalty of all England, he travelled at leisure through Italy and France. After arranging a commercial dispute with Flanders, he reached England, and was crowned, with his queen, just a year and three-quarters after his proclamation (August 19, 1274).

A Parliament held at Westminster, in 1275, enacted one of the most important statutes ever made for the reform of our laws ; and this statute expressly mentions *all the commonality* of the realm among those by whose consent it was ordained. To this Parliament Edward summoned his vassal, LLEWELYN, Prince of Wales, who had absented himself from the king's coronation, and had evaded other calls to come and do homage. Llewelyn had been an ally of Simon de Montfort, whose daughter, Eleanor, was betrothed to him. He now sent an embassy to the king of France, under whose protection Eleanor was living, requesting that his bride might be sent home, and offering his alliance against England.

Edward surprised the ships that were bringing over Eleanor, and detained her as a hostage. Llewelyn, again summoned to the Parliament, repeated his excuses, and demanded the restitution of his bride, with other conditions for his doing homage. Upon this the Prince of Wales was formally pronounced a rebel (November, 1276).

In the next summer Edward overran Wales, accompanied by Llewelyn's brother, Prince David; while the English fleet ravaged the coasts. Llewelyn sued for peace, and had to give up all his territory, except the isle of Anglesey and the region of Snowdon, and to pay a yearly tribute (1277). The Prince of Wales did homage to the King of England, and followed him to his Christmas court at London, where Eleanor was married to Llewelyn. The princess acted as a constant mediator between her husband and the king, till her death in 1281. About the same time, the fickle Prince David, angry at being treated by Edward as one of his feudal vassals, returned to Wales, and was reconciled to his brother, in an evil hour for their country and themselves.

In 1282, the whole of Wales broke out into revolt. Llewelyn, venturing beyond the mountains, was surprised and slain. His head was sent to London, where, crowned with ivy, it was borne through the streets in a mock procession to the pillory, and then fixed on a tall pole at the Tower, in derision of one of Merlin's prophecies, that the Prince of Wales should be crowned in London. The spirit of the Welsh was broken by Llewelyn's death. David, though elected his successor, was soon a deserted fugitive in the forests, and was betrayed to Edward at Midsummer. A Parliament summoned at Shrewsbury for his trial condemned him to the barbarous death which the English law then inflicted upon traitors. He was drawn by horses to the gallows, hanged, and then beheaded, and his body cut into quarters, which were exposed at four English towns, while his head was sent to London, and set up beside his brother's at the Tower.

Edward kept the Christmas of 1284 at Rhyddlan; and

HIST. BRIT.

there was enacted the famous *Statute of Wales*, for the government of the land, which it declared to be transferred by divine Providence "wholly and entirely to the king's dominion," having been "heretofore subject to him in feudal right." Wales was joined to the kingdom of England, and subjected to the English forms of government and criminal law; but its ancient laws were preserved in civil causes. Castles were built to secure the country; among them the famous castle of Caernarvon. It was in that town, but not in the castle (which was hardly then begun), that the youngest son of Edward and Eleanor, the unhappy EDWARD OF CAERNARVON, was born on the 25th of April, 1284.

Little credit, however, is due to the tale, that Edward called together the Welsh chieftains, and told them he was ready to appoint them a Prince, as they had asked, if they would accept and obey him. The chiefs replied that they would certainly accept and obey the Prince if he were of their own nation. Edward assured them that he would name one born in Wales, who could not speak a word of English, and against whose character and conduct none could bring a charge. As the chiefs, with ardent gratitude, renewed their promises, Edward presented to them his new-born son, and said, "This is your Prince." Be this as it may, the young Edward became heir to the throne by the death of his brother Alfonso, in the following August, and was soon after created "Prince of Wales." This title has ever since been conferred on the nearest male heir of the reigning sovereign in the direct line.

Scarcely had Wales been re-united to England, when events occurred in SCOTLAND, which drew Edward into a similar attempt, but with a very different issue.

ALEXANDER III., the last king of the old line, had married Margaret, the sister of Edward I. Their only daughter, Margaret, the wife of Eric, king of Norway, had died, leaving a daughter, also named MARGARET. In 1284, the Estates of Scotland swore fealty to the *Maid of Norway* (as the young Margaret was called), and Alexander died thence

years later (1287). The wise policy of Edward arranged a marriage between his son, the Prince of Wales, and his great-niece, the heiress of Scotland (1289). But the auspicious event, which would have anticipated the union of the crowns by three centuries, and saved oceans of blood and a long legacy of bitter hatred, was frustrated by the death of Margaret on her voyage to Scotland (1290).

A multitude of competitors now claimed the crown of Scotland, and the decision was referred to the King of England. Edward first demanded the admission of his feudal right as "the sovereign Lord of Scotland." He caused diligent search to be made in the records preserved in English monasteries. These proved that the kings of Scotland had repeatedly done homage to the old English kings, Edward the Elder and his successors, and to the Normans and Plantagenets, down to the homage done by Alexander III. at the coronation of Edward himself. The claim was admitted by all the principal competitors, and by the Estates of Scotland; and they placed several royal castles in Edward's hands, as a pledge of their good faith.

No less pains were taken to collect the best opinions on the question, to which the dispute was at last reduced, between JOHN BALIOL and ROBERT BRUCE,* two barons of Norman descent (as were most of the lowland Scottish lords), who held lands in England as well as Scotland. Both traced their claims from David, Earl of Huntingdon, brother of King William the Lion (see pp. 56 and 62). Baliol, the *grandson* of Earl David's *eldest* daughter, claimed the crown as the first male heir in the direct line: Bruce, the *son* of David's *second* daughter, claimed it as being one step nearer to the common ancestor. The case was referred by Edward to a commission of fifty Scottish and thirty English nobles, who reported in favour of Baliol. The King gave judgment accordingly, and JOHN BALIOL did homage to Edward for the whole kingdom.

* We must be careful in distinguishing the three generations:—
(1) ROBERT BRUCE, the claimant to the crown; (2) ROBERT BRUCE, the son, Earl of Carrick, who adhered to the side of Edward; (3) ROBERT BRUCE, the grandson, who became KING ROBERT I. of Scotland.

of Scotland at Berwick (1292). When, however, it was found that the King of England insisted on the rights of a feudal Lord, the Scots and their new king became bitterly discontented with Edward and each other. At this crisis an opportunity arose to shake off the yoke of England.

Some disputes between the mariners of the Cinque Ports * and the French led to hostilities on the coasts both of Normandy and Gascony (1293). The King of France, Philip IV., as Edward's feudal sovereign, summoned him to answer for the conduct of his subjects, and pronounced the forfeiture of Gascony and Edward's other French fiefs. The war that followed gave the Scots both a favourable opportunity, and a new ally in the King of France. But, when they took up arms in 1296, the decisive *Battle of Dunbar* brought the Scottish king and nobles to full submission (April 26). Baliol, who had renounced his allegiance to England, was carried a prisoner to London, and Edward assumed the full sovereignty of Scotland.

In a triumphant progress through that country, he received the homage of all the chief landowners; and on his fifty-eighth birthday he deposited the ancient *regalia* of Scotland before the shrine of Edward the Confessor (June 18, 1297). The crown and sceptre and other jewels were restored by Edward III.; but the "stone of destiny," on which the Scottish kings had always been crowned at Scone, is still to be seen in the coronation chair of our sovereigns in the abbey.† Thus was "Edward the First after the Conquest," like his ancestor Edward the First before the Conquest, king of all the Island of Britain, besides being lord of Ireland.

* The *Cinque* (that is "Five") *Ports*, of Sandwich, Dover, Hythe, Romney, and Hastings, derived their ancient importance and privileges from their position opposite the coast of France. Winchelsea and Rye were added to the number later.

† This stone was believed to have been brought over by the Scots when they came from Ireland. An old prophecy said of it, in Latin verse, which Sir Walter Scott has translated,

"Unless the Fates are faithless found,
And prophet's voice be vain,
Where'er this monument is found,
The Scottish race shall reign."

But at the very time when he was celebrating this conquest, it was already slipping from his grasp. Among the smaller gentry of Scotland, from whom no personal homage had been required, was SIR WILLIAM WALLACE, a knight of Ellerslie, near Paisley. He was a man of almost gigantic stature and strength, fearless bravery, and great military skill. A quarrel with an English officer, whom Wallace slew in the market-place at Lanark, had the consequence of driving the Knight of Ellerslie to the life of an outlaw. His successes against the English military posts gathered round him, besides many followers of lower rank, not a few of the nobles who had sworn allegiance to the King of England.¹

At this moment Edward was engaged in a contest with his own subjects, which forms a memorable epoch in the history of English freedom. After Parliament had granted him a subsidy* for the French war, the king sent his officers through the land to make a further levy of money by his own authority. Once more the Barons stood forward to claim the rights secured by the Great Charter. The high constable, HUMPHREY BOHUN, Earl of Hereford, and the earl marshal, ROGER BIGOD, Earl of Norfolk, refused to lead their feudal forces to Guienne at the king's command; and many other nobles followed their example. Our truly great kings have always known both when and how to give way. Edward put a stop to the forced levy of money, and appealed in person to the citizens of London, to be loyal to his son while he himself was fighting for his people abroad. But before the king sailed for Flanders, he received a "Grand Remonstrance" from the clergy, nobles, and commonalty of the realm. He had no sooner departed, than the Barons forbade the further levy of taxes, till the king should pledge himself to observe the Charter.

At the same time came the terrible news from Scotland, that Wallace had completely routed the English army at

* A *subsidy*, which means an *aid*, was a certain amount levied on the property of the king's subjects. The amount was different at different times.

the bridge of Stirling (1297), had retaken most of the fortresses, and was devastating Cumberland with savage cruelty. The council of regency advised the young Prince of Wales to call a Parliament at London. It was then that the statute, entitled the "Confirmation of the Charters," renewed the Great Charter of Liberties and the Charter of the Forest, with the vastly important addition, that the King should take no money from his subjects except "by the common consent of all the realm, and for the common profit thereof." That consent could only be given by Parliament, whose control over taxation was henceforth established. The Act was sealed by King Edward at Ghent, on the 5th of November, 1297.

Next year he made a truce with Philip, and returned to quell the revolt of Scotland. The skill of Wallace protracted the war, with much suffering to the English, till the treachery of two Scottish nobles enabled Edward to force on a pitched battle at *Falkirk*, where Wallace was utterly defeated (July 22, 1298). The patriot chief became a fugitive, but his office as governor of Scotland was committed by the nobles to a Regency, and their continued resistance was favoured by new troubles on the Continent.

In November of this year, Edward made peace with Philip of France, and soon afterwards married Philip's sister, Margaret (1299). The devoted Queen Eleanor had died at Hardby, near Lincoln, in 1291, and Edward had raised monuments of his love and grief for his wife in the beautiful "crosses" which marked each place where her body rested on its way to her tomb at Westminster.* From her loss may be dated a change for the worse in Edward's character, which was aggravated by the unworthiness of his son, the Prince of Wales.

In 1303, Edward bent all his power to the reconquest of Scotland; and the guardian Comyn made a treaty of submission, from which Wallace was excluded

* Some idea of these crosses may be gathered from the restoration of Waltham Cross, Cheshunt, 12 miles north of London.

by name. A price was set upon the head of the patriot leader, who was basely betrayed by his trusted servant, and carried a prisoner to London. He was tried in Westminster Hall, and convicted on the double charge of treason and many cruel murders. He was put to the death of a traitor, the barbarity of which was aggravated in his case by his being cut down from the gibbet while still alive, and his bowels cut out and burnt before his face (August 24, 1305).* Wallace truly declared that he was never traitor to King Edward, for he had never sworn allegiance to him. The savage cruelties he perpetrated in Cumberland cannot be denied. But Scotland will never cease to honour him as her martyred patriot.

Nor did Scotland long want a more fortunate successor, to take up and restore her fallen cause. ROBERT BRUCE, the grandson of the competitor for the crown, was now thirty-one years of age, and had just inherited his father's large estates. After constant wavering in the earlier part of the struggle, he had rendered great aid in putting down the last insurrection and in the settlement of Scotland. He was still high in Edward's confidence and favour, when of a sudden he left the English court for Scotland, at the end of 1305. Early in the new year, Bruce met John Comyn, the late regent, in a church at Dumfries, probably to induce him to aid in a new rising. It was never known what words passed between them; but only that Bruce, in a fit of rage, stabbed Comyn before the altar. Rushing out of the church, he was met by two friends, who asked him, "What tidings?"—"Bad tidings," said Bruce, "I doubt I have slain Comyn."—"Do you doubt?" said the fierce Kirkpatrick, "*Ic mac sicher*" ("I make sure"). He rushed in, and finished the bloody deed, which left Bruce no refuge but on the throne. In Edward's eyes he was a traitor double-dyed in ingratitude and treachery: the many powerful friends of Comyn were made his deadly enemies; and the Pope excommunicated

* This horrid form of punishment for treason was not abolished till 1814.

him for murder done in a church. But friends rallied round him, and he was crowned at Scone, as ROBERT I. of Scotland, on the 25th of March, 1306. His reign is dated from this day.

Edward, now in his sixty-seventh year, was already sinking under the infirmities, which had probably encouraged Bruce to his enterprise; but he was none the less resolved on signal vengeance. Before he reached Scotland, the Earl of Pembroke had routed the army of Bruce at Methven, near Perth (July 22); and King Robert was driven out a wanderer. Edward, carried through Scotland in his litter, like the Roman emperor Severus eleven centuries before, had little to do but wreak his vengeance on such of Bruce's followers as fell into his hands; and he returned to spend the winter at Carlisle.

In the same winter, as the story is told, Robert Bruce was lying in his hiding-place at the island of Rathlin, on the Irish coast, almost in despair, when he saw a spider above him trying to swing itself from one beam to another of the rude roof. Six times the insect fell short of the mark, and Bruce thought, "Even so have I taken the field six times in vain." But a last and stronger effort reached the beam; the thread was fastened; and the web was soon spun. Bruce accepted the sign; and at the opening of spring he crossed over to the isle of Arran, and thence to his own land of Carrick, on the opposite coast of Ayrshire. His defeat of Pembroke at *Loudoun Hill* avenged the disaster of Methven (May 10, 1307), and the Scots again rallied round King Robert.

Edward, though now dying, took the field with relentless purpose. He reached the petty village of Burgh-on-the-Sands, on the Solway Firth, in sight of Scotland, only to die there, on the 7th of July, 1307. He laid his last injunction upon his son, not to turn back from the war before Scotland was subdued; and till then he ordered his bones to be carried in an urn with the army, in all its marches, as a pledge of victory. But the young king satisfied himself with receiving the homage of some

Scottish nobles on the border, and then hastened back to London, taking with him his father's remains, which were buried at Westminster on the 27th of October.

The inscription on Edward's tomb named him the “Hammer of the Scots” (*Malleus Scotorum*); but it added the nobler motto, to which his whole life had been true, “Keep plighted faith” (*Pactum serva*).



CHAP. XIV.—EDWARD II. OF CAERNARVON.

FROM JULY 8, 1307, TO JANUARY 20, 1327.

Born, April 25, 1284. *Reigned*, 19½ years. *Age*, 43.

EDWARD II. was proclaimed at Carlisle, on the morrow of his father's death. At the end of August he turned southwards, leaving Aymé de Valence, Earl of Pembroke, to govern Scotland. This abandonment of the conquest was followed by a formal truce in 1309. Nor in this alone did he set at nought his father's dying exhortation.

PIERS GAVESTON, the son of a Gascon gentleman, had been early appointed as the companion of young Edward. But so bad was his influence over the prince, and so intolerable his insolence, that the king had banished Gaveston shortly before his death. His last words laid a curse upon his son if he recalled the worthless favourite; and Edward's first act was to send for Gaveston, and to enoble and enrich him. On the king's departure for France, to marry *Isabella*, daughter of Philip IV., he entrusted the regency to Gaveston (1308). When his first Parliament demanded the banishment of the favourite, Edward sent him to Ireland as governor, but he recalled him next year. After Parliament had attempted to restrain the misgovernment of the young king and his favourites, the Barons at length took up arms under Edward's cousin, Thomas, Earl of Lancaster. Gaveston was besieged and taken at Scarborough, and beheaded on Blacklow Hill, near Warwick; and Edward, deserted by his troops, sub-

mitted to the Barons, and granted them pardon for the deed.

This civil conflict ensured the final loss of Scotland. The arms of Bruce had recovered every important fortress, except Stirling : and this too was to be surrendered, if not relieved by Midsummer Day (1314). Edward now made vast preparations for the conquest, which his father had left ready to his hand seven years before ; and on that Midsummer Day he encountered the far inferior forces of Scotland on the field of *Bannockburn* in front of Stirling.

King Robert's army of 30,000 men, who fought nearly all on foot, were posted with their right covered by the brook or "burn" of Bannock, the left towards Stirling, and the front partly guarded by marshy ground and bushes against the overwhelming charge of the English chivalry. Where this protection was wanting, the skilful general had honey-combed the plain with several rows of covered pits, in which sharp stakes were fixed upright. His own few but picked horsemen, under Sir Robert Keith, the Marshal, were masked behind a wood on the right, where his fiery brother Edward Bruce held the command.

On the evening of June 23, the "Eve of St. John," the vast host of Edward came in sight of the Scots. The English spent the night in mirth and revelry over their assured victory ; the Scotch passed the hours in prayer and confession. At the dawn of day, the Abbot Maurice said mass in sight of the army, and then passed, bare-footed and carrying a crucifix, along their front, exhorting them to the fight. As the Scots knelt to receive his blessing, Edward cried, "See, thcy yield ! they ask mercy !" "They do,"—said a knight who rode beside him—"but not ours : on that field they will conquer or die."

The famous yeoman archery of England began the battle with a storm of arrows. The Scots were already shaken, when Edward Bruce launched his horsemen against the flank of the archers, and dispersed the English light infantry. Then Gilbert, Earl of Gloucester, led on the whole body of men-at-arms at full charge ; but the

hidden pits overthrew the horses, and the riders rolled upon the plain, weighed down and stifled by their armour. The remnant were engaged in a hand-to-hand fight with the Scots, when a mixed body of 15,000 followers, whom Bruce had not dared to place in the line of battle, rushed down from a hill in the rear. The English, taking them for a new reserve, fled in wild disorder. Edward, whose courage made that sad day the brightest of his own unhappy life, was forced from the field by the Earl of Pembroke. He fled to Dunbar, and thence sailed for England. The *Battle of Bannockburn* ranks in English history as the greatest defeat ever suffered since the Conquest: the Scots justly celebrate it as their Marathon. Robert Bruce obtained the full possession of his kingdom; but the war lasted (though with some truces) for eighteen years. An attempt of Edward Bruce to conquer Ireland ended in his defeat and death in 1318.

The contest between Edward and his Barons was inflamed, in 1320, by the king's choice of a new favourite. HUGH SPENSER (or Le Despenser) was the son of a nobleman of high character, and was himself of good abilities. But his arrogance disgusted the nobles; the favours and riches heaped on both the son and father made them as much hated as ever Gaveston had been; and the Parliament insisted on their banishment (1321). The civil war, which was now renewed, turned to the king's advantage: the Earl of Lancaster was defeated and taken prisoner at Boroughbridge, and was executed at Pontefract (1322). The Spensers were recalled; and all provisions trenching on the king's rights were declared to be without force.

But Edward's enemies now found an ally in his own wife, whom he had neglected for his favourites. On the pretext of settling a quarrel between her husband and her brother about Gascony, Queen Isabella went to France. There she formed a guilty intrigue with Roger Mortimer, a noble of the Lancastrian party, who had been taken at Boroughbridge, and had escaped from the Tower. In 1326, Isabella and Mortimer, with Edward's half-

brother, the Earl of Kent, landed in Suffolk, proclaiming that they came to deliver the king and country from the tyranny of his favourites. Edward fled from London with the Spencers, and embarked from Bristol with the son, while the father was left to hold that city. But the citizens forced him to surrender on the queen's approach ; and the old man (he was above ninety) suffered the horrid death of a traitor.

The Prince of Wales was now proclaimed guardian of the realm. His unhappy father, having been thrown by adverse weather on the coast of South Wales, was taken in the woods, and carried prisoner to Kenilworth. Spenser, who was taken with the king, was tried at Hereford for treason, and hanged on a gibbet 50 feet high ; and many other friends of the king were put to death. A Parliament met at Westminster on the 7th of January, 1327, and pronounced the deposition of "Edward the father," and chose "Edward the son" for their king. The reading of the sentence to Edward II. at Kenilworth marks the end of his reign (January 20).

The deposed king was moved from prison to prison, denied the sight of his children, and made to suffer shameful cruelties, which were clearly meant to shorten his life. At length, in the dead of night, on the 21st of September, piercing shrieks were heard from his chamber in Berkeley Castle. Next morning, the neighbouring nobles and the citizens of Bristol were invited to behold the late king's body, which betrayed no signs of a violent death ; but the features were horribly distorted, as if through pain. No enquiry was made ; but the rumour went abroad that the two wretches, who had Edward in their keeping, had passed a red-hot iron into his bowels. None doubted that he had been put to death by some horrid device to leave no trace of the crime, nor that it was perpetrated through the impatience of his guilty wife to enjoy power in her young son's name.

CHAP. XV.—EDWARD III. OF WINDSOR.

FROM JANUARY 25, 1327, TO JUNE 21, 1377.

Born, November 13, 1312. *Reigned*, 50½ years. *Age*, 64½.

EDWARD III. was little more than fourteen years of age when he was crowned at Westminster on the 29th of January, 1327. But he had already shown signs of high spirit; and he now gave an early proof of his personal courage, during an invasion of the Scots. Their retirement was followed by a peace, which recognized the independence of Scotland, and renounced the King of England's claim to feudal sovereignty. With his work thus finished, the great Robert Bruce died, on the 7th of June, 1329. He was succeeded by his young and imprudent son, DAVID II., who married Joan, the sister of Edward III.

Though a Council of Regency had been appointed, Mortimer, now Earl of March,* assumed, with Isabella, all the power of government. He broke up a confederacy of nobles, headed by the Earl of Lancaster, and procured from Parliament the condemnation of the king's uncle, the Earl of Kent, who was beheaded by a felon from the Marshalsea prison (1330). But the young king, who was now eighteen years old, and a father,† became ashamed of sanctioning such deeds, and determined to govern his own kingdom. In the autumn, Parliament met at Nottingham, and the queen-mother lodged with Mortimer in the castle. Edward made his way by a subterranean passage to a room next to the queen's chamber, where Mortimer was in consultation with his friends. Isabella burst into the room, crying, "Sweet son, fair son, spare my gentle Mortimer." But her minion was dragged away; the king called a Parliament at Westminster, which condemned Mortimer for treason, without a trial. He was hanged at

* This title was derived from the Welsh *March*, 'border' (the same word as *mark*), where the family of Mortimer had long been powerful.

† Edward, the famous Black Prince, was born on June 15 of this year (1330).

Tyburn,* which was then first used as a place of execution (November 29, 1330). Queen Isabella was kept in honourable custody at her own manor of Rising, for the remaining twenty-seven years of her life.

The long reign of Edward was occupied with almost incessant wars, prompted less by policy, like those of his grandfather, than by the mere love of martial glory. First, the distracted state of Scotland opened the prospect of recovering England's lost supremacy. Edward Baliol, the son of King John Baliol, invaded Scotland to recover his father's lands, and King Edward aided him to obtain the crown. The English victory at *Halidon Hill*, near Berwick, wiped out the disgrace of Bannockburn (July 19, 1333). Baliol reigned nominally for nine years (1332-1341) as the vassal of King Edward, to whom he ceded the country south of the Firths of Clyde and Forth (1333). This disgraceful act roused the whole nation against Baliol, who was henceforth a fugitive in England from his own subjects, or only present in Scotland while taking part in the invasions of King Edward. Then began that close alliance between France and Scotland, which lasted, to the vast injury of England, till the two crowns of Britain were united. At length the national party expelled the English garrisons, and David II. was recalled from his exile in France (1341).

The aid given by the king of France to the Scotch people was the real cause of the long FRENCH WARS, from which England reaped a harvest of empty glory and of long-abiding national animosity. Unhappily for both countries, a plea was ready to Edward and his people (for the English nation sided thoroughly with their king) for converting the quarrel into a war of conquest. By the death of King Charles IV. of France, just after Edward's accession (1328), the male line of Philip IV. became extinct, and the crown of France passed to his nephew, PHILIP

* This spot, which afterwards became the common place for London executions, was at the west end of the road now called Oxford Street, near the "Marble Arch," at the north entrance to Hyde Park.

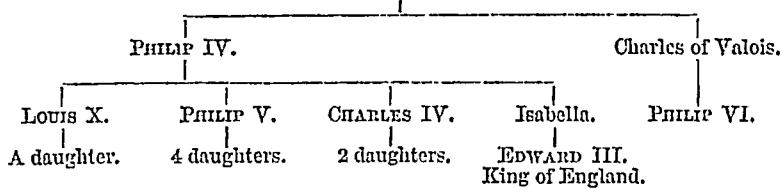
VI., son of Charles of Valois, as the direct male heir of Philip III., according to the Salic law, which excluded females from the succession.* It is needless to discuss the claim of Edward through his mother Isabella, which all now agree in pronouncing to be unfounded. On the other hand, it is clear that Philip provoked the war by aiding the Scots, and with the design of seizing upon Guienne.

It was in 1337 that Edward first publicly claimed the crown of France, and began to make preparations for war. His efforts to create a powerful fleet were rewarded by the great naval victory of *Sluys*, on the Flemish coast, which first established England's supremacy at sea (June 24, 1340). But the king's resources were exhausted for the time, and a two years' truce was made with France.

At length, in 1346, Edward and the English Parliament resolved to make a decisive effort. The king sailed from Southampton, with an army of 30,000 or 40,000 men, including 4000 men-at-arms and 10,000 archers, with Welsh and Irish light-armed troops. *Cannon* appear to have been now first used by an English army; but Edward's four cumbrous pieces of artillery were only useful for a siege.† On landing at Cape La Hogue, the king conferred knighthood on his son Edward, who was then sixteen, and on several other young nobles.

He advanced through the north of Normandy, ravaging the country and sacking the towns, which were the special objects of English commercial jealousy. Finding Rouen, the old capital of the Conqueror, too strong to be attacked,

* PHILIP III.



† Gunpowder had been invented about 1320; but Friar Bacon (see p. 70) had already hinted at its composition; and it had been long used by the Chinese.

Edward marched up the left bank of the Seine, towards Paris. By this time the whole force of France was collected in his front, while the wasted country in his rear would not support his army. By a skilful movement, Edward crossed the Seine, and fell back towards Flanders. Philip followed, avoiding a battle and gathering new forces to swell his immense army, while the English were harassed by fatigue, disease, and constant skirmishes.

Edward at length crossed the river Somme at low water, skilfully avoiding the attempt to bar his passage, and turned to receive battle at CRECY, a village fifteen miles north of Abbeville. "Here," said the king, "let us take our post; for we will not go further till we have looked our enemy in the face." He formed his army in three lines on a gentle slope, which enabled him to range his ranks of archers as it were in a series of steps. The right flank—the side which the enemy would approach from the south—was covered by a marsh; the left was protected by palisades and waggons. The place of danger and honour in the van was given to the Prince of Wales, with the Earls of Oxford and Warwick: the king took post in the third line. In this position the English army rested for the night.

At the dawn of Saturday, the 26th of August, 1346, the French host of 120,000 men advanced from Abbeville in three bodies. First marched the foreign allies of Philip, with a large force of Genoese crossbowmen. Next came a splendid body of the best chivalry of France, under the king's brother, Count d'Alençon. King Philip followed with the remainder of his forces. Noon had passed before they came in sight of the English; and Edward, after riding along the lines and speaking words of cheerful courage, had ordered his men to take their dinner and a cup of wine, and to sit down to wait for the enemy. At last the French appeared, fatigued with the long march, and pressing on in disorder, as if to a certain victory. In vain did Philip send forward the command to rest for the night,

The foremost troops cried that it would be a shame to halt, and only went forward in more eager haste.

About four o'clock, the Genoese crossbowmen advanced to the attack, "making great leaps and shouting horribly," while the English stood firm and silent in their ranks. The crossbow bolts of the Genoese fell short, for the bowstrings were slackened by a shower of rain. Not so the reply of the English archers, each of whom drew his cloth-yard shaft to the right ear and aimed it true to the mark. One discharge scattered the Genoese, and King Philip himself cried, "Kill me these rascals." The French men-at-arms pushed to the front, cutting down the Genoese, while the English arrows hailed down amidst the throng, and the Welsh and Irish ran in with their long knives to kill the fallen and the wounded.

At last the chivalry of D'Alençon came to close quarters with the English men-at-arms. The Prince of Wales killed with his own hand the young Count of Blois, who had made his way to the standard; and D'Alençon fell, with many knights, in an effort to force the English left. But the ever-growing numbers of the French put the front and second lines to such straits, that the Earl of Warwick sent to ask aid of the king. Edward was watching the conflict from a windmill in the rear, with the eye of a general who well knew when to bring up his reserves. "Well!" said he to the messenger, "Is my son dead, or hurt, or felled to the ground?" "No, Sir! thanks be to God, our Prince is yet well, but he begins to want some assistance." He was sent back with the order to trouble the king no more while the Prince lived, for his father would have him win his spurs and the whole honour of the day. The stubborn resistance of the English made good the sagacious boast. King Philip, wounded by an arrow as he attempted to reach the front of the fight, fled with a few followers from the wild confusion of the rout, where no quarter was given. In the midst of the slaughter, the blind old king of Bohemia called on his knights to lead him within sword's stroke of the English. With their bridles inter-

laced, they charged up to the throng where the Prince of Wales was fighting, and all fell slain together. It was a law of chivalry, that the victor might take the armorial bearings of a vanquished knight; and so the Prince's crest of triple feathers, with the motto *Ich dien* ("I serve"), was won from the King of Bohemia at Crecy.

Night had fallen, when King Edward came down to the battle-field, amidst the glare of torches, which showed the exulting victors and the heaps of dead and dying. The Prince of Wales knelt before his father, and Edward, embracing his victorious boy, said, "Fair son, God give you good perseverance. You are my good son, and nobly have you acquitted yourself. You are worthy to keep a realm!" The loss of the French at Crecy was between thirty and forty thousand; the English lost only three knights, one esquire, and a few of the lower orders, who in those days were numbered with little care.

Edward next laid siege to Calais, in order to secure an entrance to France at his pleasure (September 3). While thus engaged, he received the news of another brilliant victory at home. While he had seemed to be entangled in France, David II. of Scotland, the ally of Philip, had invaded England with a great army. Queen Philippa hastened to Newcastle, and called out the feudal array. In the decisive battle of *Nevill's Cross*, near Durham, the Scots were utterly routed, and King David Bruce was taken (October 12). He remained a prisoner for eleven years, till he was ransomed for a large sum in 1357.

Queen Philippa now joined her husband before Calais, which surrendered through famine, after an heroic defence of eleven months (August 4, 1347). Edward exacted, as the condition of sparing the lives of the garrison and people, that six of the chief citizens should come before him, with halters about their necks; to be dealt with at his will. All his nobles and knights urged him to spare the victims, but in vain. At last Queen Philippa threw herself at her husband's feet, and prayed him to show them mercy. "Lady!" said Edward, "I wish you had been

elsewhere! You pray me so tenderly that I cannot deny you": and he gave the prisoners into her hands. From that time Calais remained for two centuries a gate to tempt the English kings to re-enter France, till it was lost by Mary in 1558. A truce was now made with Philip, and Edward returned to England (October 12).

The next few years are marked by some events at home, of great importance. In 1348 and 1349 Great Britain and Ireland were visited by the fearful plague called the *Black Death*, which had ravaged Europe since 1340; and 57,000 persons are said to have perished in London alone. The plague returned three times between 1360 and 1370. Indeed, for centuries, the great towns, and especially London, were seldom perfectly free from pestilence.

The poor, who had now almost got free from the slavery called *villenage*, were nearly as much oppressed by the difficulties of regulating the laws of labour; and severe rules were enforced by the "Statute of Labourers," in 1349. Various laws were made for the regulation of commerce, which was rapidly growing during Edward's reign. No law is more important, for protection against tyranny, than the "Statute of Treasons," which defined the crime as compassing the king's death, levying war upon him, or aiding his enemies (1351).

But the war with France was not yet ended. In 1350, Philip VI. was succeeded by his son John II., surnamed the Good. A new cause of quarrel arose from the support given by the English to John's enemy, Charles the Bad, King of Navarre (1355). The Black Prince, to whom his father had given the government of Aquitaine, marched from Bordeaux, with no more than 12,000 men, into the centre of France, ravaging the country and collecting immense spoil. On his return through Poitou, he was overtaken by the vast army of King John; and the Prince found himself in a position like his father's before Crecy, only far more outnumbered. But the greater victory of Poitiers proved that the Prince united in himself the two qualities which had won Crecy—his father's generalship

and his own daring courage (September 19, 1356). More brilliant still was the courtesy which he showed to his prisoner, King John, waiting on him in his tent after the victory, and riding on a little palfrey beside the captive king, who was mounted on a splendid charger, at the triumphal entry into London (May, 1357).

The war continued till 1360, when at length the *Peace of Bretigny* secured to Edward his territories in Aquitaine, as well as Calais, in full sovereignty, and no longer as the vassal of the French king. On the other hand, Edward renounced his claim to the crown of France, and the old possessions of the Plantagenets north of the Loire. King John was set free; but, as the heavy ransom promised for him remained unpaid, he nobly surrendered himself again (1363), and died next year at London, in the palace of the Savoy.

His son and successor, Charles V., had already shown that he regarded the treaty of Bretigny as a mere truce; and in 1369 he summoned the Black Prince to answer the complaints of his Gascon subjects. This claim to the suzerainty, which had been renounced by the treaty, was answered by Edward's renewed claim to the crown of France. But this *Third French War* proved as disastrous as those of Crecy and Poitiers had been glorious. Gascony was overrun by the French; and the Black Prince, who had already returned to England in 1371, broken down by disease, died in 1376, at the early age of forty-six. But before his death he had distinguished himself by opposition to the evil counsellors and pernicious favourites, to whom Edward surrendered himself in his old age. The Black Prince was buried in Canterbury Cathedral, where, above his splendid tomb and gilded effigy, still hang his velvet coat-of-arms, his helmet, shield, crest, and gauntlets, and the empty scabbard of his sword.

The king, soured by disappointment, and sunk in sensuality, had outlived his glory and the love of his people, when he died at his palace of Shene (afterwards called Richmond) on the 21st of June, 1377. He was buried at

Westminster Abbey, beside his grandfather, to whom Edward III., with all his faults, was only second in greatness among our kings since the Conquest.



CHAP. XVI.—RICHARD II. OF BORDEAUX.

FROM JUNE 22, 1377, TO SEPTEMBER 29, 1399.

Born, February, 1366. *Reigned*, 22 years. *Age*, 34.

RICHARD, the surviving son of Edward the Black Prince, was only eleven years old when he was crowned at Westminster (July 16, 1377). At the death of Edward III. the power was in the hands of his fourth and eldest surviving son, JOHN OF GAUNT (so-called from his birthplace Ghent), Duke of Lancaster. The wars with France and Scotland still went on, and required more and more money. In 1380 Parliament imposed a *poll-tax* (that is, a “head-tax”) of twelve pence on every person above fifteen years of age, without regard to wealth or poverty or the number of persons in a family. This tax, so hard upon the poor, while it was as nothing to the rich, was levied with the utmost rigour and insolence. The royal tax-gatherers entered every man’s house to exact an account of the number and age of its inmates. One of them, on such a pretext, was offering a gross insult to the daughter of one Walter, a tiler at Dartford, in Kent, when the father struck him dead (1381). The act was the signal for a revolt, which spread through a great part of England. *Wat Tyler* (for surnames were then taken from men’s trades) was soon at the head of a force of 100,000 men from Kent and Surrey. On the 12th of June they marched to Blackheath, and next day they entered London. John of Gaunt was absent in Scotland; but the sense and spirit of the young king raised hopes which he soon bitterly disappointed. Richard rode from the Tower to confer with the rebels at Mile End. Their demands were moderate, and the king promised his consent and a full pardon. But the leaders were unable

to keep back their more violent followers from outrages, among which were the murders of the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Treasurer, who had spoken of them with bitter contempt in the council.

Next day they advanced to Smithfield (then a field open to the country), and were met by the king, with Sir William Walworth, Mayor of London. Tyler had come forward to a conference, when, from some unexplained cause, he was stabbed by Walworth. The insurgents bent their bows to take revenge on the royal party; but Richard, who was in his sixteenth year, showed a courage not less than his father's at Crecy at the same age. Riding up to the angry mob, he cried, "What do ye, my lieges? Tyler was a traitor. Follow me; I will be your leader." The spell of kindly courage charmed the multitude, and they followed the king to Islington, only to find themselves surrounded by a large force of men-at-arms. They cast themselves on the king's mercy, which he promised, and they dispersed. Then the pardons and promises were revoked; and the rebels were hunted down by their revengeful lords, and gibbeted by merciless judges. Chief Justice Tressilian, especially, made a "bloody circuit," only equalled by that of Judge Jeffreys 300 years later. At last a general pardon was sanctioned by Parliament, which at the same time rejected the proposal, made in the king's name, for giving freedom to the villeins (1382).

In 1386, John of Gaunt went to Spain, to claim the crown of Castile, in right of his second wife. His departure left the government in the hands of Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of Gloucester, the seventh and third surviving son of Edward III. Richard, though now twenty years old, was deprived of all power; and a commission of regency was formed. About this time was fought the skirmish at *Otterburn*, in Northumberland, between Henry Percy and the Scots under Douglas, so famous through the noble ballad of *Chevy Chase* (1388).

In the next year, Richard regained power by a stroke of energy. At a full council he suddenly said to the

Duke of Gloucester, "Uncle, I beg you to tell me my age." "Your Highness," replied the Duke, "is in your twenty-second year." "Then I must be old enough to govern for myself," said Richard; and forthwith he dismissed his uncle and his ministers. Richard visited Ireland, and gained favour there by his winning grace (1394). He also visited France, and ended the war of fifty years by a twenty-five years' truce, which was confirmed by his marriage with Isabella, daughter of Charles VI., a child only seven years old (1396). His first wife, "the good Queen Anne," of Bohemia, whom he had married in 1382, had died two years before.

This peace was purchased by the surrender of Brest and Cherbourg; and it was even suspected that Calais and the Channel Islands were to be given up. Richard's unpopularity reached its height, and Gloucester aimed at recovering power. But the king was beforehand with his enemies; and he had a powerful friend in his cousin, HENRY OF BOLINGBROKE, Earl of Derby, the eldest son of John of Gaunt. The Duke of Gloucester was treacherously seized, with some of his chief adherents, and a Parliament was summoned for their trial. Shortly before its meeting, Gloucester died in his prison at Calais; and there is no doubt that he was murdered. The leading nobles of his party were condemned by Parliament; and, finally, Richard was enabled to dispense with coming to Parliament for money, by the grant of a tax on wool for his life (1398).

But the tyranny, in which the king now felt secure, came to a speedy end. He celebrated his triumph by conferring new honours on his chief supporters, amongst whom the Earls of Derby and Nottingham were made Dukes of Hereford and Norfolk. These proud nobles quarrelled with each other. Hereford accused Norfolk of traitorously slandering the king; and the case was ordered to be tried by the "wager of battle." For, till lately, an accused person was allowed to challenge his accuser to single combat, and it was believed that God would defend the right. The lists were prepared at Coventry, and the

accuser and appellant were on the point of rushing to the encounter, when Richard forbade the combat, and banished both from England. Norfolk was adjudged to exile for life, as guilty: Hereford was banished for ten years, on the pretext of keeping the public peace (1398). Both had their rights of property secured to them, but when Hereford's father, John of Gaunt, died in the following year, the king seized on his son's inheritance for himself and his favourites (1399).

In the foolish security of triumph, Richard sailed for Ireland in the following May. But no sooner had he quitted Milford Haven, than the friends of the banished Bolingbroke invited him to use the opportunity. Henry set sail from Brittany, and landed with only fifteen men-at-arms at Ravenspur, an old port at the mouth of the Humber, now under the sea. He was at once joined by several powerful nobles. The regent Duke of York took the side of Henry, who was welcomed heartily by the common people and by the citizens of London.

When Richard received the news in Ireland, he sent forward the Earl of Salisbury to gather a force in Wales. But these troops dispersed before the king arrived to join them; and Richard took refuge in Conway Castle. Lured thence on the pretext of a conference, he was seized and carried to Flint, where Henry met the king with outward reverence, and offered him his help to govern the kingdom better. A Parliament was summoned in the name of Richard, who was conveyed to the Tower. There he was required to sign a deed of abdication, confessing his incapacity and unworthiness to reign, and absolving his subjects from their allegiance.

Next day, September 30, 1399, the Parliament met in Westminster Hall, which Richard had just finished (see p. 45), and pronounced the king's deposition. Then Henry of Lancaster stepped forward to the vacant throne, and claimed it as being "descended by right line of blood, coming from the good lord King Henry III." For he pretended that his ancestor, Edmund Crouch-

back, Henry III.'s younger son, was really older than his brother, Edward I. This pretence was false; and Henry's real title was the old English usage of the consent of the people to his receiving the crown, which his daring had won, and which he had the strength to hold. Amidst the applause of the Lords and Commons, echoed by the people outside the Hall, he was placed in the vacant throne by the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, as King HENRY IV.

The Parliament ordered "Richard, late king of England, to be kept secretly in safe ward." There is but one safe prison for a deposed king, and to that the unhappy Richard was soon borne. On February 14, 1400, it was announced that he had died in Pontefract Castle, and on the 14th of March his body was exposed to public view at St. Paul's, but with only the face uncovered. The corpse was buried at King's Langley, but removed by Henry V. to the tomb which Richard had prepared in Westminster Abbey beside that of his first queen, Anne. The Abbey has long possessed a picture of Richard II., *the first contemporary portrait of any English sovereign*. With him ended the direct line of the Plantagenets, just upon two centuries and a half (245 years) after the accession of Henry II.

This age is memorable for two of the greatest names in English Literature. JOHN WICLIF, a priest of Oxford, was the forerunner of the Protestant Reformation. Through the protection of John of Gaunt, in the reigns of Edward III. and Richard II., Wyclif escaped the penalties of heresy, and died in peace at his rectory of Lutterworth, in 1385. His followers were known by the name of *Lollards*. Wyclif's translation of the Bible was a chief means of giving our language its lasting form.

What it did for English prose was done for English poetry in the works of GEOFFREY CHAUCER, who stands first in order of time, and among the first in merit, of our great poets. His famous "Canterbury Tales" appeared about 1383, and he died in the last year of the fourteenth century (October 25, 1400).

CHAP. XVII.—THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

HENRY IV. BOLINGBROKE.

FROM SEPTEMBER 30, 1399, TO MARCH 20, 1413.

Born, 1366. Reigned, 13½ years. Age, 47.

SIR HENRY OF LANCASTER, surnamed BOLINGBROKE from his birthplace in Lincolnshire, was of the same age as his deposed cousin. His son, HENRY, whom he immediately created Prince of Wales, was of the same age as Richard had been at his accession. The king was crowned at Westminster on the 13th of October, 1400, with a pomp that might help to gloss over his doubtful title. For Henry was, and still is, regarded by very many as an usurper. Richard had indeed justly forfeited the crown; and Henry had received it, according to the old English custom, by the voice of the people expressed in Parliament. But that Parliament had been packed for the purpose, and Henry had rested his claim on a false pretence of hereditary right. Nor was the claim undisputed. The alleged heir by the rule of legitimacy—the young Edmund Mortimer*—fled to the Welsh Marches, of which he was the Earl; and his brother and sister were imprisoned by Henry at Windsor. Charles VI. of France, and Robert III. of Scotland, both refused to recognize Henry: they declared their truces with Richard annulled by his deposition; and they prepared to invade England. Henry, on his part, tried to win favour from his people by promising to renew and surpass the conquests of his grandfather in France. But during his reign, these mutual threats bore no other fruit than an irregular warfare, in which the coasts of England were insulted, and her trade almost destroyed.

At the beginning of the new year, Richard's half-brothers, and others of his adherents, conspired to murder

* The discussion of the claim of the line of Clarence and Mortimer (which we have presently to notice) would be out of place in this work. (For the order of descent, see Table B.)

Henry at a tournament at Oxford. The plot was betrayed by Edward, Earl of Rutland (the elder son of Edmund, Duke of York); and many of the leaders were taken and executed. This rebellion doubtless sealed the fate of the imprisoned king, which has been spoken of in its place.

In these troubles the Welsh saw their opportunity to strike another blow for independence. They found an able leader in SIR OWEN GLENDOWER, great-grandson of the famous Llewelyn. Henry invaded North Wales twice in one year, but found Glendower's position too strong to be attacked. Between these two campaigns, Henry marched into Scotland and burnt Edinburgh. The Scots retaliated next year by an invasion, declaring that King Richard had escaped from prison and was with them. They were defeated, and their leader, the Earl of Douglas, was taken prisoner, in the battle of *Homildon Hill*, by Henry Percy, son of the Earl of Northumberland, whose fiery courage gained him the famous name of HOTSPUR (1402).

But Henry soon gave offence to the powerful Percies. They formed a league with their late enemies the Scots; and Owen Glendower in like manner joined the Mortimers, to set the Earl of March upon the throne. Hotspur, with Douglas, whom he had set free without ransom, marched to unite his forces with the Welsh and the Mortimers. Henry hastened to prevent their junction, and defeated the northern army in the bloody battle of *Shrewsbury* (July 23, 1403). Here Hotspur was killed; and Prince Henry, at the age of seventeen, first proved his courage. The battle saved Henry's throne, but did little towards subduing Glendower. He was recognized by the King of France as sovereign Prince of Wales (1404), and he maintained his independence till his death in 1415.

The Earl of Northumberland, who was marching to support his son, when he heard of the battle of Shrewsbury, disbanded his army and received a pardon. Two years later, however, he conspired again with Mowbray, Earl of Nottingham, and Scrope, Archbishop of York; but these two were treacherously seized by Ralph Neville, Earl

of Westmoreland, and they were beheaded, while Northumberland himself escaped to Scotland (1405). In a third attempt, Northumberland was defeated and killed in battle at *Bramham Moor* (1408); and Henry was disturbed by no more rebellions.

In the contest with Scotland, Henry was favoured by an accident, of which he took unscrupulous advantage. DAVID II., the only son of Robert Bruce, had died childless in 1371. Bruce's daughter Marjory had married WALTER STEWART, of the Norman house of Fitzalan, who had been *Stewards* of Scotland from the reign of David I. With ROBERT II., the son of Walter Stewart and Marjory Bruce, began the long STEWART LINE, who seemed doomed to misery and misfortune alike on the Scottish and English throne. Robert II. was succeeded in 1389 by his son John, whose name was changed to ROBERT III. His crafty brother, Robert, Duke of Albany, inflamed the king's anger at the profligacy of his only son, David, Duke of Rothesay. The unhappy youth was imprisoned at Falkland, and there (as was generally believed) his uncle caused him to be starved to death (1400). When his younger brother, James, reached the age of eleven, the heart-broken king resolved to place this his only remaining child beyond his uncle's reach, by sending him to France for education (1405). But the ship was taken by an English pirate; and JAMES I. (as the young prince became by his father's death next year) was detained by Henry. He was brought up at Windsor, in a manner worthy of his rank; and one fruit of his genius and education still survives, in the poems entitled "The King's Quhair" (*i.e.* *Quire* or *Book*). James was only released in 1424. The Regent Albany and the King of England concluded a truce in 1412.

Thus did the founder of the Lancastrian line maintain his power by military skill, cold-blooded policy, and pitiless punishments. But Henry's health was broken down, his early popularity was gone, and he was beset by those fears of conspiracy, which make the usurper's diadem a crown of thorns. Even his eldest son, who had

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CHAP. XVII. *Henry, Prince of Wales.*

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fought so bravely and skilfully in Wales, became an object of suspicion to the king. Our great poet's picture of Prince Henry's youthful disorders is unquestionably a caricature; and it seems that his real offence lay in an attempt, after the example of the Black Prince, to reform the evils of his father's government. In 1411, the Prince of Wales was removed from the Council; and he was refused the Regency, which he claimed, when the king fell ill in the following year.

That illness cut short two fixed purposes of King Henry's life, while he was still in the prime of middle age. The one purpose was to establish his dynasty by the glory of re-conquering France; the other was to atone for his perfidies and cruelties by a new Crusade. The preparations for his voyage were made, when he came up to London to keep the Christmas of 1412; but the king was bowed down with weakness and pain, and covered with a leprosy.

Early in the new year, Henry was paying his farewell devotions at the Confessor's shrine at Westminster, when he was seized with a mortal stroke, and carried into the Abbot's house. On coming to himself, the king asked if the chamber where he lay had any special name; and he was answered that it was named "Jerusalem." Then—as the chronicler tells us—then said the king, "Laud be to the Father of Heaven! for now I know that I shall die in this chamber, according to the prophecy made of me before-said, that I should die in Jerusalem." In the interval while he lay there between life and death, a French chronicler places the scene of "Prince Henry's Conversion," which is immortalized by Shakspere. The English writers tell us only of the prince's dutiful attendance at his father's death-bed; his pious exhortation to the dying king, who blessed his son as Isaac blessed Jacob; and the agony of grief in which, when all was over, the prince passed the rest of the day upon his knees. Though Henry IV. died in the precincts of Westminster Abbey, he chose his burial-place beside his uncle, the Black Prince, at Canterbury.

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It remains to mention one of the foulest blots upon the memory of Henry IV. When he came to the throne, the dispute between the clergy and the followers of Wiclif had reached its height. Heresy was severely punishable by the law of the Church; but the horrid penalty of burning heretics alive had not yet been imported into England. Henry was eager to gain the support of the clergy to his doubtful title; and the Lollards were generally regarded as the enemies of all social laws. So, as early as the second year of this reign, the king and parliament passed the statute "For the Burning of the Heretic;" and it was at once put in force against William Sawtree, a clergyman of London (1401). Another result of Henry's doubtful title was the growth of the power of Parliament during his reign.

CHAP. XVIII.—HENRY V. OF MONMOUTH.

FROM MARCH 21, 1413, TO AUGUST 31, 1422.

Born, August 9, 1388. Reigned, 9½ years. Age, 34.

HENRY, surnamed from his birthplace, Monmouth, was in his twenty-fifth year when he succeeded to his father's doubtful title, and to his two conflicts with the Lollards and the French monarchy. To the one he brought more than his father's hardness of heart; to the other a union of youthful energy and keen ambition with military genius and experience. Nor was he wanting in intellectual culture. Educated at Queen's College, Oxford, under his uncle Henry Beaufort (afterwards the famous Bishop of Winchester and Cardinal), Henry was fond of learning as well as of music. Above all, he had the magic power of command over the minds and hearts of men, by the force of a strong will, a winning manner, and animating speech. He was crowned at Westminster, on the 9th of April, 1413.

Even those, who ascribe to Prince Harry a disorderly youth, are agreed that his first act as King was to cast off his dissolute companions. Among these a tradition of popular prejudice ranked SIR JOHN OLDCASTLE, Lord

Cobham, the first original of Shakspere's Falstaff. Oldcastle had in youth led the irregular life of a soldier, and he had been one of the Prince's friends ; but his real offence was that he had become a sincere convert to Wiclif's doctrines. The persecuted Lollards attempted to influence the young king by threats ; and the Archbishop of Canterbury denounced Oldcastle as their instigator. After Henry had tried in vain to win him back to the Church, Oldcastle was tried and condemned as a heretic (1413). He was committed to the Tower, but effected his escape ; and his name became the watchword of the disaffected Lollards. At the beginning of the year, a body of insurgents was surprised by Henry's skilful measures in St. Giles's Fields, and many of them were executed on a charge of conspiring to kill the king and to set up a commonwealth with Oldcastle as regent (1414).

Four years later Sir John himself was seized in Wales, brought to London, and doomed by Parliament, without further trial, to be hanged as a traitor and burnt as a heretic. Accordingly Oldcastle was hung alive in chains over a fire, and slowly burnt to death. He suffered this horrible torture with the constancy of a martyr.

The young king sought fame for himself, and support to his doubtful title, by reviving the claims of his family to the crown of France. That country was now divided by the factions of *Orleans* and *Burgundy*, which were striving for power in the name of the idiot King Charles VI. On the 11th of August, 1415, Henry set sail from Southampton with a fleet of 1400 ships, some of them the largest that England had yet possessed. His army numbered 6000 men-at-arms and 24,000 light infantry, for the most part archers. He had several siege cannons which, we are told, "vomited from their fiery mouths vast quantities of stones, with a vehement explosion and a terrific and intolerable noise." Nevertheless, Henry spent thirty-six days in the siege of Harfleur, at the mouth of the Seine. When the city was taken, the autumn rains were at hand, the English army was weakened by

disease, and the French were gathered in full force upon the Seine. Prudence counselled the leaving of a garrison in Harfleur, and deferring the invasion till next year. But Henry declared that he would not seem to go back through cowardice, but would march to Calais through the lands that were his own by right. Thus, like his great-grandfather, he reached the Somme, and passed it by a skilful manœuvre. Advancing beyond Crecy, he found the enemy posted to cut off his march, at Azincourt (October 24, 1415).

The French host of 60,000 knights and men-at-arms were led, as at Crecy, by the flower of their nobility. But, in their desire to bar the way of the English, they had taken post between two woods, with a narrow front which lost them their immense advantage in numbers. The miry ground, moreover, was unfavourable for attack. Henry placed his archers in the van, and ordered each to arm himself with a sharp stake, to make a palisade against the charge of the French cavalry. Thus prepared, the little English army, sick and weary with their fortnight's march, and almost starving, spent the night with the stern resolve, animated by their king's bold words, to force their way through upon the morrow.

Early in the morning of the 25th, Henry threw archers into the woods to gall the enemy's flank, and awaited the attack of the fiery chivalry of France. But the recollection of Crecy had taught them caution ; and it was not till the English moved forward with a shout, that the French were provoked to a hasty and disorderly charge. Henry halted his men : the archers set their stakes in the ground : and a storm of arrows swept down the foremost foes. As new troops advanced over the miry ground, the archers fell back fighting, or slipped aside to their comrades in the woods. At length the French and English chivalry joined in a furious fight, in the midst of which King Henry and the Duke d'Alençon met hand to hand. The king was nearly felled by a blow which broke the crown upon his helmet, and D'Alençon, in the act of yielding himself a

prisoner, was cut down by Henry's enraged knights. His death decided the flight of the second French division : the first had been already routed ; and the third made but a faint resistance. Ten thousand of the French were left dead upon the field, and among the 14,000 prisoners were the Dukes of Orleans and Bourbon. The loss of the English is variously reckoned from as few as forty men to 1600 at the most.

Next day, Henry continued his march to Calais, whence he sailed home, and made his triumphal entry into London on the 23rd of November. He renewed the invasion of France in 1417 ; the Duke of Burgundy joined him, and resistance became hopeless. By the *Treaty of Troyes* (May 21, 1420), the government of France was committed to Henry, who was to succeed to the throne on the death of Charles VI. Henry married Catherine, the daughter of Charles, at Troyes. He assumed the government, and kept Christmas at Paris, and then returned to England with his queen, who was crowned at Westminster (February 24, 1421). But, within a month, Thomas, Duke of Clarence, the king's brother, was defeated and killed in Anjou by a body of Scots in the pay of the Dauphin Charles. Henry took a cunning and cruel revenge. Having obtained the consent of the captive king, James I., for his subjects to enlist in the English service, he declared the Scots who were taken in arms on the French side to be rebels, and put them to death without mercy.

Henry passed over to France, for the third time, in June, to complete his conquest. He drove the Dauphin behind the Loire, and formed the siege of Orleans, the city which commands the chief passage between northern and southern France. But want of provisions forced him to return to Paris ; and there he received the news of the birth of his son at Windsor on the 6th of December, 1421.

He had not long taken the field in the following spring, when he was seized with a mortal illness, and died at the Bois de Vincennes, near Paris (August 31, 1422). He was buried, with a pomp never before known, in the Confessor's

chapel at Westminster, on the 9th of November. His effigy was covered with plates of silver gilded over, and its head was of solid silver with teeth of gold. The oaken figure, stripped of its rich ornaments by the spoiler's hand, is the fit emblem at once of the past splendour of Henry's glory and conquests, and of the lasting honour due to his better qualities.



CHAP. XIX.—HENRY VI. OF WINDSOR.

FROM SEPTEMBER 1, 1422, TO MARCH 4, 1461.

Born, December 6, 1421. *Reigned*, 38½ years. *Deposed*, March 4, 1461. *Died*, May, 1471. *Age* 50.

THE long reign of the infant, who inherited the crowns of England and France before he was a year old, and miserably lost them both, contains two chief series of events. These are the *Expulsion of the English from France*, and the *Civil Wars of the Roses*.

§ I.—In the month after the accession of Henry VI. in England, Charles VI. of France died; and Henry was proclaimed King of France at Paris, while the Dauphin was crowned at Poitiers as CHARLES VII. Thus France was divided by the Loire into an English and a French kingdom. The English cause was ably maintained by *John, Duke of Bedford*, the eldest surviving brother of the late king, who remained in France as Regent. Bedford was appointed by Parliament *Protector of the Realm and Church of England*; but during his absence the office was entrusted to his younger brother, *Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester*. Gloucester's popular manners won him the title of "the good," but he was rash and arrogant. He found an opponent, as ambitious and far abler, in *Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester*, the second son of John of Gaunt and Catherine Swynford. Their rivalry began the miseries of Henry's reign.

In France, besides other successes, Bedford won a great victory at *Vernueil* (August 17, 1424). In 1428 the siege of Orleans was again formed, in order to carry the war

beyond the Loire. The city seemed doomed to fall, and with it the cause of France, when a marvellous deliverance was effected by the enthusiasm of a peasant girl of Lorraine.

JOAN OF ARC,* was the daughter of a cottager, and her youth was passed chiefly in tending her father's little flock of sheep and goats. She cherished the hope, which had grown up among the common people, that France would be saved by a miracle, till visions of saints appeared to call her to the work. She obtained a horse and suit of armour, and was brought before Charles VII. It is said that she pointed out the king, disguised in the midst of his court, and told him a secret known only to himself. Convinced by these and other signs of her divine mission, Charles allowed her to lead a body of chosen troops to the relief of Orleans. She passed the ill-guarded English lines in the night, amidst a thunderstorm, and carried the much needed supplies into the city. The defenders, roused to enthusiasm, were led by their deliverer to the attack of the English lines, and the siege was raised on the 8th of May.

The tide of war turned rapidly ; and, in two months, the "Maid of Orleans," riding in full armour under her consecrated banner, escorted Charles VII. to his coronation at Rheims (July 12, 1429). Joan would have retired to her peasant cot, but she was persuaded to remain with the army ; and in the following year she was taken prisoner by the Burgundians (1430). Her captors sold her to Bedford, who brought her to trial as a heretic and sorceress ; and she was burnt alive in the market-place of Rouen (June 14, 1431).

Henry VI. was crowned at Paris on the 17th of December; but in the same month Harfleur, his father's first conquest, was retaken by the French. Four years later, the Duke of Bedford died, and the Duke of Burgundy formed an alliance with King Charles. Next year Paris received the king (1436); and the French successes continued till 1444, when a truce was concluded by the party of the Beauforts,

* Her real name was Jeanne Darc, not d'Arc, that is, of Arc.

which was now supreme in England. A secret article of the treaty gave up Anjou and Maine to France as the price of Henry's marriage to Charles's niece, MARGARET OF ANJOU. This marriage, which took place on the 22nd of April, 1445, hastened on the great conflict of parties at home.

King Charles took advantage of the troubles of England to break the truce and conquer Normandy. Gascony was next overrun; and a last effort for its recovery ended in the defeat and death of the veteran John Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, in the *Battle of Castillon*. The capture of Bordeaux, three months later, completed *the final expulsion of the English from all France*, except only Calais (October 1453). Next month, King Henry was seized with the mental illness, which brought the conflict of parties to a head in England.

§ II.—During the long rivalry between Duke Humphrey and the Beauforts, Henry had grown up to manhood, showing every virtue, except those needful to rule a state troubled by factions. He was meek, devout, learned, and a munificent patron of education: witness his foundations of Eton School and King's College, Cambridge. But he had neither martial spirit nor knightly skill; no firmness in dispensing justice, no fixity of purpose, no power to resist the influence of the ambitious and designing. After yielding to the Beauforts, he became a puppet in the hands of the resolute wife whom they obtained for him.

The decisive victory of the Beauforts over Gloucester was gained when they procured the condemnation of his Duchess to imprisonment for life on a charge of witchcraft (1441). At length, in a Parliament held at Bury St. Edmund's, the charge of treason was brought openly against Gloucester. He died in prison a few days later, and his great enemy, the Cardinal, expired within two months (1447). But neither the popular belief that Duke Humphrey was murdered, nor Shakspere's terrible picture of Cardinal Beaufort's dying agony of remorse, can be received as certain.

The Earl of Suffolk, who succeeded to the Cardinal's power, had to bear the whole burthen of the disgrace in France, the loss of Anjou and Maine, the death of Glou-

cester, and the growing sufferings brought upon the people by war, taxation, and misgovernment. And a rival had now risen far more formidable than Gloucester.

The death of Edmund Mortimer, in 1424, had left young RICHARD, DUKE OF YORK, the heir to his vast wealth and high claims.* Richard gained distinction in the French war, and he held the office of Lieutenant of France twice after Bedford's death; but he was thwarted and recalled by the Beauforts. In 1449 they endeavoured to get rid of the Duke's opposition by sending him to the government of Ireland; but his popularity there laid the foundation for the long devotion of the Irish to the house of York. About this time Richard's claim to the crown began to be put forward by his friends.

The year 1450 opened with serious popular risings, and the ruling party seem to have thought it prudent to let Suffolk be made a scapegoat. The Duke was impeached by the Commons, and threw himself on the mercy of the king, who sentenced him to five years' banishment. On his voyage to Calais, he was overtaken by a king's ship, and, after a mock trial before the sailors, he was beheaded on the side of a boat (May 3, 1450).

In the same month, a large body of the men of Kent rose in rebellion under one JOHN CADE, a young Irish soldier of fortune, who assumed the popular name of Mortimer. The insurgents included many of the middle class and no small number of the gentry. Joined by many more from Sussex, Surrey, Essex, and Suffolk, they encamped on Blackheath to the number of 20,000 men. They sent in to the king two papers, complaining of the extravagance and extortion of the government, and demanding the dismissal of evil councillors and the recall of the Duke of York. A show of negotiation was kept up, while an army was gathered under Sir Humphrey Stafford, before whom Cade fell back to Sevenoaks. There the royal forces were completely routed, and Stafford was killed.

* For the descent of the Duke of York from Edward III., through the lines of Clarence and York, see Table B.

Jack Cade (as he is commonly called) now led his followers to London. They entered the City without opposition, and returned each night to their quarters in Southwark. The king had retired to Kenilworth; but some of the ministers had gathered a force in the Tower. The Treasurer, Lord Say and Sele, one of Suffolk's chief friends, was seized and brought to trial before the Lord Mayor and the City magistrates, and beheaded at the Standard in Chepe (now Cheapside). But now the more disorderly of the insurgents began to plunder; and next day, the citizens joined with the troops in the Tower to oppose their entrance. A battle on London Bridge was ended by an agreement, that the petitions should be received and the rebels pardoned. The promise was broken as soon as its purpose was gained. Most of the insurgents dispersed to their homes; but Cade retired to Rochester, whence he fled in disguise and was killed in Sussex.

In the autumn, Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, returned from his government in France, and succeeded to the place of Suffolk in the queen's favour. The Duke of York, also, returned from Ireland; and thus the rival leaders were brought face to face. After fruitless attempts at a reconciliation, the Duke of York took up arms, and defeated the royalist army in the *First Battle of St. Albans*, where Somerset was among the slain (May 23, 1455).

Thus began the terrible civil contest called the *Wars of the Roses*, from the badges chosen by the two parties, the *White Rose of York* and the *Red Rose of Lancaster*. The conflict did not end till after thirty years, and it cost the best blood of the royalty and nobility of England, in twelve pitched battles, and in the merciless executions by which the contest was envenomed.

After the battle of Northampton (1460), in which Henry was taken prisoner, the Duke of York for the first time formally claimed the crown as his birthright, as the heir of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, the elder brother of John of Gaunt, the parent of the line of Lancaster. Parliament pronounced in Richard's favour, after hearing the meek but

firm protest of Henry, based on the sixty years' undisturbed possession of the kingdom by his grandfather, his father, and himself. It was agreed that Henry should reign during his lifetime, and that he should be succeeded by Richard or his heir.

But the high-minded Queen Margaret scorned the compromise, which excluded her son, Edward, Prince of Wales; and she raised an army in the North. The Duke of York, with an inferior force, found himself beset in the castle of Sandal, near *Wakefield*. Sallying forth imprudently, he was defeated and killed on the last day of the year (1460). The head of Duke Richard was set up on the walls of York, crowned with a diadem of paper. His second son, the Earl of Rutland, a youth of seventeen, was killed in cold blood by Lord Clifford (known as "the butcher"), to avenge his father's death at St. Alban's. The Earl of Salisbury, and other noble prisoners, were beheaded without trial at Pontefract on the first day of the new year, which soon saw the strangest vicissitudes.

Richard had left a son as able as he was willing to avenge his father's fall. EDWARD PLANTAGENET, EARL OF MARCH, and now Duke of York, was in his twentieth year. To a stature and strength, like those of Edward I., he united great beauty and fascinating manners, dauntless bravery, and perfect generalship. But, with the name of Plantagenet, he seemed to have inherited the worst qualities of the race. More selfish than any of that selfish line, more unscrupulous and licentious than Henry II. and John, more faithless than Henry III., he had a savage cruelty of his own, to which the civil wars gave full scope. He was now in arms on the Welsh border; and at *Mortimer's Cross* he defeated Owen Tudor, Earl of Pembroke.

Margaret now advanced upon London, defeated the Earl of Warwick,* the chief leader of the Yorkists, at the *Second*

* Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, called "the King-maker," was the son of the Earl of Salisbury who was beheaded at Pontefract, and grandson of Ralph Neville, Earl of Westmoreland, and Joan Beaufort, the daughter of John of Gaunt.

Battle of St. Alban's, and regained the person of Henry, who had been brought into the field by Warwick. But the citizens of London shut their gates against the queen, and she was compelled to retire on Edward's approach. The young Duke of York entered London, and made his claim to the crown before a meeting of peers and prelates and the chief citizens of London. They received him as king in place of Henry, and on the following day he was publicly recognized at Westminster as KING EDWARD IV. (March 4, 1461).

On that same 4th of March, Henry VI., who had retired with Margaret to the North, was adjudged to have been deposed. He was then only in his fortieth year, and had reigned thirty-nine years. We shall see that his sad life was prolonged for still ten years. He spent nearly half that time as a prisoner, but with a brief interval of restoration to freedom and the throne. That interval of six months (October 9, 1470, to April 12, 1471) is, however, commonly included in his successor's reign.



CHAP. XX.—THE HOUSE OF YORK.

EDWARD IV.—EDWARD V.—RICHARD III.

FROM MARCH 4, 1461, TO AUGUST 22, 1485.

Section I.—EDWARD IV. PLANTAGENET.

FROM MARCH 4, 1461, TO APRIL 9, 1483.

Born, April 29, 1441. *Reigned*, 22 years. *Age*, 42.

EDWARD OF YORK had no sooner received the title of King, than he left London to secure it by another battle. For Margaret had gathered a force of 60,000 men; and the young king and Warwick, with only 40,000, met her at *Towton*, near Tadcaster, in Yorkshire (March 29, 1461). The battle lasted with obstinate fury for six hours, before the

Lancastrians gave way. Henry, with Margaret and their son, Prince Edward, escaped to Scotland, while their captured friends suffered the doom which was now usual after each battle in these fearful wars. King Edward was crowned at Westminster on the 29th of June. His first Parliament ratified his title, and passed a wide act of attainder* against the Lancastrians, but confirmed the acts of "the late pretended kings."

By the help of the Regent of Scotland, and of the crafty French king, Louis XI., Margaret was enabled to make renewed attempts. In 1464, she invaded England, only to suffer two defeats in Northumberland. In the last decisive rout, at *Hexham*, the unhappy Henry was separated from his wife and son. Margaret (as the story is told) sought shelter with Prince Edward in a forest, and fell into the hands of robbers. They plundered her of her jewels, but, while they quarrelled over the booty, the queen escaped with her son into the thick wood. After lying for some time exhausted with fatigue and grief, she saw a robber coming through the trees with a drawn sword in his hand. The queen went straight to meet him, leading the young prince, and said, "Here, my friend, I commit to your care the safety of your king's son." The robber vowed that he would serve them, and aided their escape to Flanders. The like loyalty in the common people protected Henry in his wanderings from hut to hut; but at length he was betrayed by a monk of Abingdon. Warwick brought the deposed king to London in a mock triumph, with his feet tied under his horse's belly, and lodged him as a prisoner in the Tower (1466).

By this time, the enormous power and wealth of Warwick began to overshadow the throne, and Edward gave the Earl a personal affront. In 1463, the king had made a private marriage with *Elizabeth Woodville*, widow of the Lancastrian Sir John Gray. While Warwick was negotiating a royal match for the king, Edward avowed his

* On the meaning of *attainder*, and its distinction from *impeachment*, see a Note on p. 190,

marriage, and Queen Elizabeth was crowned at Westminster (1465). Her relations were promoted and enriched, and a conflict was waged at court between the Woodvilles and the Nevilles, the family of Warwick. The queen's jealousy extended to the king's two brothers, George, Duke of Clarence, and Richard, Duke of Gloucester. Clarence, who was headstrong and fickle, joined the party of the Nevilles, and married Isabella, the elder daughter of Warwick, without the king's permission (1469). The doubtful conduct of Warwick and Clarence, during a Lancastrian insurrection, caused Edward to proclaim them both as traitors (March 31, 1470). They fled to the court of Louis XI., and formed a league with Queen Margaret. They returned to England in the course of the same year, and carried everything before them. Edward in his turn was obliged to fly to Flanders; while Warwick entered London, and released King Henry.

In Flanders, Edward obtained a small force from his brother-in-law, Charles the Bold; and in the following year he landed at Ravenspur, the same spot where Bolingbroke had landed to wrest the crown from Richard II. He was accompanied by his faithful brother, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, who, at the age of twenty, was already a great statesman and commander. Clarence deserted to them from the army which Warwick had gathered at Coventry; and they marched rapidly to London. There Warwick's brother, the Archbishop of York, overawed by the citizens, stipulated for his own pardon, and opened the gates to Edward. Henry was again made a prisoner in the Tower, and Edward marched out to meet Warwick, who had reached Hadley Chase, near Barnet. There, at the parting of the two great north roads, may be seen the obelisk, which marks the field where the "king-maker" was defeated and slain on Easter Sunday, 1471.

On the same day, Margaret landed from France, only to be defeated at the fatal *Battle of Tewkesbury* (May 1, 1471). Her son, Edward, Prince of Wales, now eighteen years old, was taken prisoner, and murdered as foully as King Edward's brother had been murdered after the fight of

Wakefield. Queen Margaret, who had taken sanctuary in a neighbouring convent, was kept a prisoner till she was ransomed by Louis XI. On the very day that the restored king returned in triumph to London, it was announced that the deposed King Henry had died in the Tower (May 22, 1471). He was buried at Chertsey Abbey ; but the miracles, believed to be wrought at his tomb, caused Richard III. to remove his body to the new sepulchre of the Yorkist kings at St. George's Chapel, Windsor.

During the eleven years of his restored reign, Edward gave himself up to sensual pleasure. He desired to strengthen his dynasty by renewing the conquests of his great namesakes. But his invasion of France, in 1475, ended in his acceptance of a bribe from Louis XI. He availed himself of the internal troubles of Scotland to renew the English claim of sovereignty ; and the result of a two years' war, conducted by the Duke of Gloucester, was the gain of Berwick-upon-Tweed (1482).

The royal family continued to be divided by intrigues. Clarence was constantly at variance with the Queen and Gloucester. At length he was charged with high treason ; and Edward appeared in person before the peers to plead against his brother. Clarence was condemned, and put to death secretly in the Tower, and the queen's brother, Earl Rivers, was enriched with his estates (February, 1478).

The name of Earl Rivers is connected with an event that forms a welcome relief amidst the horrors of Edward's reign, and an epoch in the history of Britain and the world. The INVENTION OF PRINTING was perfected in Germany in the middle of the 15th century ; and WILLIAM CAXTON, a merchant of London, who had learnt the art in Germany, set up *the first English printing press* in the Almonry at Westminster in 1477. Earl Rivers, who was himself an author, introduced Caxton to the king ; and we possess proofs of Edward's own taste for letters.

But all the nobler parts of this king's nature were quenched in the indulgence of sensual pleasures, which brought him to the grave at the early age of forty-two

(April 9, 1483). He was buried in the new chapel of St. George at Windsor, in which—as in Henry VI.'s chapel of King's College, Cambridge, and Henry VII.'s chapel at Westminster—we see the best examples of the last style of genuine English architecture. A poet has said of the graves of Edward and Henry beneath that noble chapel—

“And blended lie the oppressor and the oppressed.”

Section II.—EDWARD V.

FROM APRIL 9 TO JUNE 26, 1483.

Born, November 4, 1470. *Reigned*, 11 weeks. *Age*, 13.

THE brief story of Edward V.'s nominal reign is merely that of his uncle's usurpation.

Edward IV. left two surviving sons and five daughters, all very young. In the year before his death, Edward, Prince of Wales, then twelve years old, had been sent to keep his court at Ludlow, in Shropshire, under the care of his uncle, the Earl Rivers. He was now proclaimed as EDWARD V., and was sent for to London by the queen-mother, who desired to obtain the regency.

Richard, Duke of Gloucester, hastened from York to oppose this claim. He had with him Henry Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, and Lord Hastings, the most intimate friend of the late king and the companion of his pleasures. There can be little doubt that Gloucester had already formed the resolution to supplant his nephew; but there is no proof that he was yet stained with crime.

This crooked and wizened monster, as the popular Lancastrian tradition makes Richard, was now a young man of thirty-three, famed for his courage, military skill, and sagacity. In person he was insignificant, but his only deformity seems to have been a slight elevation of one shoulder. His look was keen and commanding. Too young to have had any part in the cruelties of the main course of the civil war (he was only eleven years old when Towton was fought), he was accused only by vague rumour of a part in the secret murders of Henry VI. and Clarence.

But, in the intrigues of Edward's court, Richard had given proofs of his selfish and unscrupulous policy; and the present state of affairs hardly left such a man a choice between destroying the Woodvilles or being destroyed himself. It is the fatal vice of all usurpers, that on the plea of necessity they commit themselves to crime; and, having once chosen his part, the last Plantagenet king surpassed all his predecessors in unscrupulous ambition and hard-hearted cruelty.

The two cavalcades—that of Rivers and the young king approaching London from the Welsh border, and that of Gloucester and Buckingham marching from the north—met at Stony Stratford on the 30th of April. Richard assumed a friendly air, and then suddenly seized the unsuspecting Lord Rivers and his friends, and sent them prisoners to Pontefract. When the news reached London, Queen Elizabeth fled, for the second time, to the sanctuary at Westminister, with her daughters and her younger son, Richard, Duke of York, who was ten years old, (May 1). Three days later, Gloucester brought the young king into London with royal pomp, and lodged him in the Tower.*

A council of prelates, nobles, and citizens, appointed the Duke of Gloucester Protector and Defender of England: the king's coronation was fixed for the 22nd of June; and a Parliament was summoned in Edward's name for the 25th. But Gloucester used the interval for very different preparations among his adherents; and when all was ready, he suddenly threw off the mask. His first blow was at those of his own supporters, whom he knew to be stedfast also to his nephew's cause. On the 13th of June a council was held at the Tower, when Richard came in abruptly, and stood for a while silent, with brows knitted as if in anger. Hastings made some remark on the Protector's discomposure; Richard turned upon him, called him "traitor," and struck the table with his fist. At this signal, the cry

* From its erection by William the Conqueror, down to a much later period than this, the Tower of London was a royal palace, as well as a fortress and state prison.

of "Treason" was raised without, and a body of armed men rushed in, and seized Hastings and other councillors. Hastings was hurried out to the Tower green, where his head was struck off, a log that happened to lie there serving for a block. It was given out that he had plotted the deaths of Gloucester and Buckingham.

On the same day, Ratcliffe, a staunch adherent of Richard, appeared at Pontefract, and took possession of Earl Rivers and the other prisoners, who were beheaded in a few days. Three days later, Richard sent the Archbishop of Canterbury to persuade the queen to give up her younger son. Elizabeth knew it would be useless to refuse, and the Duke of York was sent to join his brother in the Tower.

The persons of both the Princes being thus secured, it remained to take away their birthright. A clergyman, Dr. Ralph Shaw, brother to the Lord Mayor, preaching at Paul's Cross on the next Sunday, declared that the marriage of Edward IV. to Elizabeth Woodville was void, so that Richard, Duke of Gloucester, was the next living heir to his father, Richard, Duke of York (June 22). Two days later, Buckingham addressed the citizens at Guildhall to the same purpose. On the next day, a body of prelates, nobles, and commons, waited upon Richard with a petition, setting forth his right to the crown, which they called upon him to accept by the election of the three Estates of the Realm. After a show of reluctance, Richard said that it was his duty to obey the voice of his people. On the morrow he was solemnly enthroned at Westminster Hall; and from that day Richard III. dated the beginning of his reign (June 26, 1483).

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Section III.—RICHARD III. CROOKBACK.

FROM JUNE 26, 1483, TO AUGUST 22, 1485.

Born, October 21, 1450. Reign, 2 years. Age, 35.

RICHARD III. was crowned at Westminster on the 8th of July, with his queen Anne, the younger daughter of

Warwick, and the widow of Prince Edward, son of Henry VI. The large attendance of the nobility, and the honours which Richard showered upon them, were signs rather of fear than favour, on both sides.

Many of those, who had been united by common hatred of the Woodvilles, now began to plot Richard's overthrow. Their first design was to restore the imprisoned Edward V. Upon this Richard published the fact, that both the young princes had died in the Tower. The manner of this darkest deed in our history only became known in the next reign by the confession of the murderers. Richard had sent his Master of the Horse, Sir James Tyrrel, to take command of the Tower for one day and night. In that night, Tyrrel, with his groom, Dighton, and a hired assassin named Forest, entered the chamber in the "Bloody Tower," where the young Princes slept the sleep of innocence, smothered them with the bed-clothes, and buried them at the foot of a staircase. The confession was published by Henry VII. in disproof of the pretensions of Perkin Warbeck to be the Duke of York. But its truth was confirmed, in 1674, by the discovery of the bones of two youths under a staircase in the White Tower. They were buried at Westminster by Charles II., as the remains of the murdered Princes.

That they were murdered, was universally believed ; and the loyal Yorkists, the Lancastrians, and the Woodville party, united to avenge the crime. The sagacious Morton, Bishop of Ely, devised a happy scheme of union. The crown was offered to HENRY TUDOR, Earl of Richmond, the head of the Lancastrians, as the descendant of John of Gaunt through his mother Margaret Beaufort. He satisfied the Yorkist conspirators by promising to marry the Princess Elizabeth, the eldest daughter, and now the heiress, of Edward IV. Richmond sailed from Brittany, but his fleet was scattered by a storm, and, when he reached the shore of Dorset, his force was so small that he sailed back again. Buckingham rose in arms, but was taken and beheaded ; others of the chiefs fled to Brittany ; and Richard kept his Christmas joyously at London.

In January, 1484, Richard held his only Parliament, which passed several excellent measures. Its statutes are remarkable as the first, since the Conquest, that were framed in the *English language*, and also the first that were *printed*. Among them was the abolition of the forced loans, which Edward IV. had exacted under the specious name of *Benevolences*; but Richard again resorted to them in the troubles of the next year. The two Houses took an oath to support the succession of Richard's only son, Edward, Prince of Wales. But the young Prince died on the 9th of April, and Richard formed the scheme of uniting the Yorkists by marrying the Princess Elizabeth. This design caused the Earl of Richmond to make a decisive effort.

On the 1st of August, 1485, Henry set sail from Harfleur; and he landed at Milford Haven with a little army of 3000 men, which was increased to 6000 during his march. Richard, with double that force, rode out from Leicester to the *Field of Market Bosworth*. But he was disturbed by the doubtful conduct of Lord Stanley and his brother, Sir William Stanley, who at length went over to Richmond, either during the night, or in the very crisis of the battle on the following day (Monday, August 22). On finding himself betrayed, Richard made a desperate effort of personal valour. Shouting "Treason!" he spurred his horse to where the hostile banner waved, killed the standard-bearer, and closed in a hand-to-hand conflict with his rival, when he was overpowered by numbers and slain.

The crown, which Richard had worn over his helmet, was taken up by Sir William Stanley and placed by him on Richmond's head, amidst shouts of "Long live KING HENRY!" The naked body of Richard was flung like a pack across a horse, and so carried into Leicester. There it was exposed for two days to the insults of the populace, and buried at last with scant ceremony in the church of the Grey Friars.

So ended the Wars of the Roses; with the last of the long line of Plantagenets, whose fourteen kings had ruled England for 330 years.

CHAP. XXI.—THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

HENRY VII. TUDOR.

FROM AUGUST 22, 1485, TO APRIL 21, 1509.

Born, 1456. Reigned, 24 years. Age, 53.

IN the person of Henry VII. England was ruled for the first time by a descendant of the old British race; for his father, Edmund Tudor, was a Welshman. He fought at Bosworth under the Red Dragon of the old Pendragons, and he named his eldest son *Arthur*. But Henry came to the throne as the head of the house of Lancaster through his mother, and he pursued the Yorkists with a revengeful spirit. In other respects he was a cold and sagacious politician. He was well fitted to give the country a firm government after the troubles of the civil wars, which had almost destroyed the nobility. The Tudors established a rule more despotic than had been seen in England before; but, by curbing the power of the nobles, they prepared the way for a government founded on popular rights. It has been said that the happiness of the English people dates from the fall of the last Plantagenet.

Henry entered London on the 27th of August, 1485, amidst great rejoicings over the fall of the tyrant Richard and the end of the Civil Wars. The crown placed on his head at Bosworth was again conferred with the wonted solemnities at Westminster; and the title, which he always claimed from his victory, was bestowed on Henry and his heirs by Act of Parliament. It was not without reluctance that he performed the condition of his marriage with Elizabeth of York, whom he treated with cold neglect.

Henry's true feeling to that family was shown when he sent the young Edward Plantagenet, Earl of Warwick, and son of the Duke of Clarence, to the Tower, as well as by the sentences which Parliament pronounced against the Yorkists. An insurrection of Richard's personal friends in

the north was easily suppressed ; but the popularity of the house of York in Ireland caused Henry to be attacked by two of the most remarkable cases of *personation* recorded in history. Both risings were vigorously supported by Margaret, Duchess dowager of Burgundy, the sister of Edward IV.

Before Henry had been two years on the throne, a youth, about fifteen years of age, landed at Dublin, giving himself out to be the Earl of Warwick, escaped from the Tower. He was handsome, intelligent, and of good address. He was received by the Deputy of Ireland, and crowned as King Edward VI. His real name, however, was LAMBERT SIMNEL ; he was the son of a baker, or, as some say, a joiner, at Oxford, and he had been tutored for his part by a priest, named Richard Simon. The prime mover of the plot was John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln (son of Elizabeth, sister of Edward IV.), whom Richard had named as his heir after his own son's death. Lincoln obtained a force of 2000 Germans from Flanders, and landed in Lancashire with Simnel. Henry, after exposing the imposture by exhibiting the true Warwick to the people, defeated the insurgents at Stoke-upon-Trent, where Lincoln was killed, and Simnel and Simon were taken prisoners (1487). The tutor was imprisoned for life, and his tool was made a scullion, and afterwards a falconer, in the royal household. The spectacle of a pretender, serving his rival as a menial, was more useful to Henry than the poor youth's blood. The insurrection formed a pretext for new exactions from the Yorkists, which weakened them while gratifying Henry's avarice.

The other pretender was far more dangerous than Simnel. Early in 1492, a handsome and graceful youth landed at Cork from Brittany, and claimed the loyalty of the Irish, as the grandson, namesake, and heir, of the popular Richard, Duke of York. For he said that he was the younger son of Edward IV., that, when Richard III. falsely gave out the news of his death, he had escaped from the Tower by the kindness of a lord, who was com-

missioned to destroy him ; and that he had since been concealed in France and Portugal. But he gave no account of the fate of Edward V., who, if still alive, would be the true heir of York, and the proof of whose death would have been a confirmation of his younger brother's rights.

From Ireland the pretender went to France, and thence to Flanders, where he was received by the Duchess Margaret as "the true White Rose of York." Envoys, whom the English Yorkists sent over to Flanders, returned satisfied of his identity ; but the agents of Henry declared that he was proved to be a native of Tournay, called *Pierce Osbeck*, a name which was commonly corrupted into PERKIN WARBECK. While men were in great doubt, Henry produced the confession made by the murderers of the young Princes in the Tower : but they were let go unpunished. Not so some men of mark, who were denounced as holding intercourse with Flanders. Among those executed for treason was Sir William Stanley, who had saved Henry's life and crowned him at Bosworth, but whose wealth was a temptation too strong for the king's cold sense of gratitude. In Ireland the pretender's strength was broken by the policy of Henry, which was carried out by a new Deputy, Sir Edward Poynings ; and the *Statute of Drogheda*, or *Poynings' Law*, remained the basis of the Irish government till the Union with Great Britain.

Warbeck tried a landing at Deal ; but the men of Kent beat him off, capturing between 100 and 200 of his followers, who were marched to London "railed in ropes like horses drawing in a cart," and there hanged. Repulsed next from Ireland by Poynings, Warbeck found an ally in James IV. of Scotland ; but their joint invasion of the north of England ended in mere plundering. This Scottish war obtained for Henry a new subsidy from Parliament ; but the men of Cornwall refused to pay it, and marched in arms as far as Blackheath, where they were defeated by the king. At the same time the great success of the English arms in the north brought James to agree to a truce for seven years ; and Warbeck

tried a landing among the Cornish malcontents. But when he met the royal army near Taunton, he lost courage, stole away from his troops, and took sanctuary at Beaulieu, in the New Forest. He surrendered on the promise of his life, and was kept in honourable custody in London till he escaped in June, 1498. This time he came forth from his sanctuary at Shene (Richmond), made a public confession of his imposture, and was imprisoned in the Tower. There it was alleged that he formed a plot with the young Earl of Warwick, and both were executed (1499).

The innocent life of Warwick was sacrificed to strengthen Henry's dynasty, in prospect of the marriage of Arthur, Prince of Wales, with Catherine of Aragon, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. Arthur died within five months after the marriage (1502), and Catherine was betrothed to his next brother, afterwards Henry VIII. The marriage of Henry's daughter, Margaret Tudor, to James IV. of Scotland (1503) was destined to give England her royal lines of Stewart and Hanover.

The king's exactions of money were carried on during the later years of his reign by Sir Richard Empson and Edmund Dudley. The latter was Speaker of the House of Commons in 1504, and father of the John Dudley who became famous in the reign of Edward VI. as Earl of Warwick and Duke of Northumberland. Empson and Dudley strained the penal laws, so as to bring enormous fines to the hoard, which Henry amassed in the vaults of his favourite palace at Shene. At that delightful spot, which was now called *Richmond*, after the king's former title,* Henry died of consumption on the 25th of April, 1509. He was buried at Westminster in the beautiful Chapel which bears his name.

Henry's rule was marked by the inflexible administration of justice, where it was not perverted by his party hate and avarice. But the severity of the law was also strained to increase the royal power. With this view Henry employed and extended the power of the King's Council,

* The title of his earldom was derived from Richmond in Yorkshire.

which became notorious for its oppression under the name of the *Court of Star Chamber*. It was so called from the stars "powdered" on the walls of the room where it sat in the palace of Westminster. Among the best measures of Henry's reign were those for the encouragement of trade. He gave his personal attention to the regulation of weights and measures; and he made a commercial treaty with Burgundy, which favoured the trade of England with the rich marts of Flanders. This treaty well deserved its name of the *Great Intercourse*.

Henry had a part in one of the chief glories of his age, *the discovery of America*. Though forestalled by Queen Isabella of Castile in providing means for the voyage which bore CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS to the West Indies in 1492, Henry sent out the expedition which first reached the mainland itself. In 1496 he granted a charter to a Venetian settled at Bristol, named JOHN CABOT, and his sons, who discovered Labrador in 1497, a year before Columbus saw the continent of North America. Sebastian Cabot continued his father's discoveries along the coast. In 1498, the Portuguese, under Vasco de Gama, sailed round the Cape of Good Hope to India. These discoveries, with the progress of printing and the decay of feudalism, mark the age of Henry VII. as the transition from what are called the "Middle Ages" to the new state of modern Europe.

The death of Henry set England free to play her part in the movements of that new age abroad. Peace was now restored at home, and the throne was settled afresh on the firm foundation of hereditary right, when, for the first time since the deposition of Richard II., the crown descended without dispute, to the heir of the united houses of Lancaster and York.

CHAP. XXII.—HENRY VIII. TUDOR.

FROM APRIL 22, 1509, TO JANUARY 28, 1547.

Born, June 28, 1491. Reigned, 38 years. Age, 55½.

HENRY VIII. was only in his eighteenth year when he succeeded his hard and hated father amidst universal joy. He was as remarkable for vigour of mind as for his handsome person and his princely graces. Having been destined, as a second son, to hold the primacy of England, and perhaps to aspire to the papacy of Rome, Henry had received an education which prepared him to take part in the mighty controversy of the Reformation. He never lost his love for theological learning; and his religion, as a *sentiment*, survived the atrocious deeds which have branded his name with everlasting infamy. As yet, however, the only sign of the dark future was that love of pleasure, which is apt to pass through hardened selfishness into cold cruelty. His first act was to issue a proclamation, promising redress to the sufferers from his father's exactions; and Empson and Dudley were executed for high treason.

Henry was married to his brother's widow, Catherine of Aragon, on the 7th of June, 1509, and on the 24th the king and queen were crowned at Westminster. Amidst the splendid banquets, pageants, and tournaments, on which his father's hoards were lavished, the young king showed that love and aptitude for business, which he never remitted through his long reign; and he found a minister in one of the most famous of British statesmen.

THOMAS WOLSEY was born at Ipswich in 1471, “an honest poor man’s son,” says his attached servant, George Cavel-
dish, who wrote his life. Even before the early age then usual, Wolsey went to Magdalen College, Oxford, and he obtained the title of the Boy Bachelor by taking that degree in his fifteenth year. Entering the Church, he became a royal chaplain; and his good speed in a secret commission from Henry VII. to the Emperor Maximilian

obtained him the deanery of Lincoln in 1508. When Henry VIII. came to the throne, Wolsey's office of royal almoner gave him constant access to the king. He was in close league with the chief minister, Fox, Bishop of Winchester, who procured him a seat in the council. Alike by his prompt sagacity in business, and his freedom in sharing Henry's pleasures, Wolsey soon became the confidential adviser and close companion of the king.

The state of Europe opened a new field to the ambition of the young and ardent prince, contrary to the advice of his father's old councillors, that England should keep clear of Continental wars, and aim at the lordship of the sea. In 1512, Henry was tempted by Pope Julius III. to join the "Holy League" against France. After two indecisive attacks on Brest, answered by French ravages along the English coast, Henry crossed over to Calais with an army, to join the Emperor Maximilian. Near Guinegate, on the river Lys, the allies gained an easy victory, called the *Battle of the Spurs*, in derision of the quick flight of the French (August 16, 1513).

Within the same week, the invasion of England from the north by Henry's brother-in-law, James IV., as the ally of France, led to a very different conflict, which has been immortalized by the genius of Sir Walter Scott. On the 9th of September, the Scottish army of 50,000 men was encountered on *Flodden Field*, at the foot of the Cheviot Hills, by 26,000 English under Thomas Howard, Earl of Surrey. After one of the fiercest battles ever fought in the long wars between the two kingdoms, James was left dead upon the field, with the flower of the Scotch nobility, and 8000 men besides. The new king, JAMES V., was an infant under two years old, and the troubles of his minority hastened the peace which was made with England in the following year. At the same time peace was made with France, and Louis XII. married Mary Tudor, the younger sister of King Henry. But on the 1st of January, 1515, the king of France died, and his widow afterwards married Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. Among

their descendants was the famous and unfortunate Lady Jane Grey.

The year which opened with the death of Louis XII. forms a marked epoch in the history of England and of Europe. Francis I., the new king of France, was a young man of twenty-one, nearly resembling Henry in character as well as age, ardent and chivalrous, and fond of pleasure. Next year a third youthful king was placed on the throne of Spain and the Indies by the death of Ferdinand (1516). Charles I., king of Spain, better known as the Emperor Charles V., united the inheritance of Spain, the Indies, and the Two Sicilies, with that of Austria and the Netherlands, besides his claim to the Empire. This position made Charles the natural rival of Francis, while Henry, the island king, might act various parts between them, as an ally or mediator. But Charles was of a very different character from Henry or Francis; and, at the age of only fifteen, he was full of cunning policy, as well as skilled in war. At first, Charles sought the friendship both of Francis and of Henry; and treaties made in 1516 gave Europe a breathing space before the coming storm. A peaceful policy was enjoined by the new and magnificent pope, Leo X., who was intent on adorning Rome with the works of Michael Angelo and Raffaelle, and especially on the building of St. Peter's.

In England, Wolsey had now reached the fulness of his power. He had been made Bishop of Tournay and Lincoln, Archbishop of York, Lord Chancellor, a Cardinal, and, finally, Papal Legate in England (1516). His splendour and luxury were unbounded. He seemed to govern England at his will by occupying Henry with a round of pleasures, and enabling him to rule as a despotic king. After the dissolution of Parliament in 1515, seven full years passed without the meeting of another.

On the death of Maximilian, the king of France aspired to the imperial crown, and Henry became a candidate, but did not press his claim. In spite of the efforts and bribery used by Francis, the king of Spain was elected as the

EMPEROR CHARLES THE FIFTH (July 5, 1519). The resentment of Francis and the ambition of Charles renewed the struggle between Germany and Francé, which has lasted to our own day. Both sought the alliance of England and courted the all-powerful Cardinal. While Francis was inviting Henry to a meeting, Charles landed in England, on his voyage from Spain to Flanders. He spent Whitsuntide with Henry at Canterbury, and gained over Wolsey by promising to aid his election to the papacy.

On the day of the Emperor's departure, Henry crossed to Calais, to meet Francis on a field within the English territory, to which the gorgeous array of the two courts gave the name of the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*. The two kings, the goodliest persons in either host, met on horseback, and embraced with the warmest professions of regard. Thence Henry proceeded to Gravelines, to return the Emperor's visit; and Charles, foreseeing the coming storm in Europe, flattered the king by proposing that he should act as umpire in any dispute that might arise (1520).

Before the war broke out in the following year, the signal had been given for the far mightier conflict of the REFORMATION. MARTIN LUTHER, born on the 10th of November, 1483, had begun to study the Bible in his monastic cell at Erfurt, and to expound it as professor of philosophy at Wittemberg. The necessities of the splendid Pope Leo X., especially for the building of St. Peter's, led to a traffic in "indulgences," which Luther openly denounced (1517). After a controversy of three years, Pope Leo launched the sentence of excommunication against Luther, who replied by publicly burning the Bull, and renouncing the Pope's authority (December 10, 1520). The learned king of England was among Luther's most vehement opponents, and Henry's book, "On the Seven Sacraments," was rewarded by the Pope with the title, which is still borne by his Protestant successors, of *Defender of the Faith* (1521).

In the same year, war had broken out between Francis and Charles; and Wolsey made a secret treaty with the

Emperor. On the death of Leo X.; however, in December, the papacy was conferred on ADRIAN VI., a Fleming, who had been tutor to the Emperor. Charles again visited England, made new promises to Wolsey, and persuaded Henry to declare war against France (1522). Little was done in this war, but it had a momentous effect at home. After raising money by a "benevolence," Henry found it necessary to call another Parliament (1523).

The Speaker of the Commons was SIR THOMAS MORE, one of the best and wisest and wittiest sons of England. Born in 1480, the son of Sir John More, a judge, he had been trained under the care of the famous Morton, Bishop of Ely. More was eminent both for legal and theological learning, and he was esteemed the most eloquent speaker of his time. His labours as a lawyer were relieved by the writing of a history of Richard III., and of his famous picture of a perfect commonwealth in the imaginary island of "Utopia" (*the Blessed Place*). Besides holding a judicial office in London, he had been much employed by Henry, who often visited him at his house, part of which still exists as Crosby Hall in Bishopsgate Street. And now, while still in the full enjoyment of the royal favour, More defended the privileges of Parliament with the courage that never failed him. Wolsey went in state to the House of Commons and demanded the enormous supply of 800,000*l.* The members sat in silence, till the Chancellor haughtily demanded an answer through their Speaker. More replied, bending the knee, that they were abashed by the presence of so great a person, and, according to their ancient liberties, he could not answer but by their instruction. Half only of the demand was voted; and Henry dissolved the Parliament, and passed another seven years without one.

In 1523 the papal throne was again vacant, and Wolsey was again disappointed, the Emperor's influence being given to CLEMENT VII. But Charles was relieved from any need to court Wolsey, by the decisive victory of *Pavia*, in which Francis was taken prisoner and the emperor won Lombardy (1525). This blow to France roused in Henry's mind tho

old desire of recovering the lost dominions of the Plantagenets. But Charles was too sagacious to help in setting up a rival so powerful as a king of France and England would have been. On his rejecting Henry's proposal for a joint invasion of France, the king of England made peace, on the promise of a large sum of money, and Charles released Francis, though on hard conditions (1526).

The illegal exactions for the proposed invasion of France had provoked popular discontent, and even insurrection, and the clamour grew loud against Wolsey. The Cardinal's arrogance had begun to offend the king, who cast longing eyes upon his minister's wealth and was eager to shake off his control. Henry was appeased, for a while, by the present of Wolsey's newly finished palace of Hampton Court, which an unselfish royal liberality has since devoted to the recreation of the people.* But a new cause of trouble was bringing on the fate of the Cardinal, together with results of infinitely greater moment.

In 1527, Henry began to avow the doubts, which (he said) he had long felt, as to the lawfulness of his marriage with his brother's widow. He professed to see a divine judgment in the early deaths of all his children except the Lady MARY. He had formed a growing aversion for Catherine, who was six years older than himself and had the grave and devout temper of a Spaniard. A striking contrast was offered by the youthful beauty and lively grace of one of the queen's maids of honour, ANNE, the daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn, and of her Henry became enamoured. He submitted his scruples to Pope Clement, who was now the prisoner of Charles V., and who gave a favourable answer. But Clement assumed another tone when he was set at liberty; and he issued a commission to his Legates, Wolsey and Campeggio, to try the case between the king and queen. Through the influence of the Emperor Charles, who was the nephew of Queen Cathérine, the trial

* The palace was enlarged by Sir Christopher Wren for Charles II. and William III.; but much of Wolsey's building remains, including the splendid Banqueting Hall, restored in 1858.

was suddenly adjourned by Campeggio, and the parties were cited to appear before the Pope at Rome (1529). Henry now formed the twofold resolve, to decide the case at home, and avenge his disappointment upon Wolsey. THOMAS CRANMER, a professor of theology at Cambridge, furnished the welcome suggestion, that the question should be submitted to the English and foreign Universities—"Do the laws of God allow a man to marry his brother's widow?"

Wolsey was indicted in the Court of King's Bench for breaking a famous law of Edward III. by receiving Bulls from the Pope, (which he had necessarily done as Legate), and judgment of imprisonment and forfeiture of goods was given against him. He had in the meantime been deprived of the chancellorship, which was conferred on Sir Thomas More. A new Parliament, which met on the 3rd of November, presented a petition to the king, charging the late Chancellor with many great offences; but Henry, who had already shown signs of relenting towards Wolsey, refused to receive the petition.

Early in the new year Wolsey received a full pardon with an order to retire to his diocese of York. But, in November, he was suddenly arrested on a new charge of treason, and brought towards London. He reached Leicester a dying man, and said, as he alighted at the Abbey Gate, "Father Abbot, I am come hither to lay my bones among you." In his dying words to Sir William Kingston, the lieutenant of the Tower, Wolsey declared his innocence towards the king: "If I had served God as diligently as I have done the King, He would not have given me over in my grey hairs." With deep and prophetic knowledge of Henry's character, he added: "He is a prince of royal courage and hath a princely heart; and rather than he will miss or want any part of his will and pleasure, he will endanger the loss of the one-half of his realm. I warn you, be well assured and advised what ye put into his head, for ye shall never put it out again." He died the next day, in the sixtieth year of his age (November 29, 1530).

Parliament followed up the fall of Wolsey by an Act

declaring the whole clergy of the realm subject to the pains of *præmunire** for submitting to Wolsey as Legate; but they were pardoned on the payment of an enormous fine. At the same time they were made to acknowledge in Convocation† that “the King was the Protector and supreme Head of the Church and clergy of England;” but with the saving clause, “in so far as is permitted by the law of Christ.” Next year the forced surrender by Convocation of its legislative powers, and the transfer to the king of the “first-fruits” of bishops’ sees, hitherto levied for the Pope, completed the subjection of the Church of England to the State. Sir Thomas More declared his conscientious adherence to the supremacy of the Pope by resigning the great seal (1532).

The opinions of the Universities on Henry’s marriage had been laid before Parliament in 1531. Those of England and of France (where Francis was still Henry’s close ally), and those of the Protestant divines of Germany, were according to Henry’s wishes: the Catholic Universities of Germany and Italy, which were under the Emperor’s influence, upheld the marriage. After some further attempts to gain the Pope’s consent, Henry celebrated a private marriage with Anne Boleyn (January 25, 1533), and prepared to have it ratified by an authority independent of the Pope. Parliament, reassembling in February, passed an Act, forbidding appeals from the ecclesiastical courts to Rome, and giving an appeal to the upper house of Convocation in all cases touching the king and his family.

At this very juncture the Archbishop of Canterbury died, and Cranmer was raised to the primacy (March 30). Convocation, appealed to under the new Act, decided in Henry’s favour; and the new Archbishop solemnly pro-

* The *Statute of Præmunire* was passed in the reign of Richard II. It subjected to the penalties of treason any person who should procure Bull or other instruments, affecting the King or his realm.

† Convocation is an assembly of the clergy, which meets during the sitting of Parliament, in two Houses, the Upper consisting of the Bishops, the Lower of representatives of the Clergy. Each province, Canterbury and York, has its own Convocation.

nounced the king's marriage with Catherine null and void from the beginning, and that with Anne Boleyn good and lawful. Queen Anne entered London in state amidst the acclamations of the people, and was crowned at Westminster. Three months later she gave birth to a daughter, destined to rule England by the renowned name of ELIZABETH (September 7, 1533). The divorced Queen Catherine lived at Kimbolton, passing her time in religious exercises and acts of charity, till her death in 1536. Her daughter, Mary, was excluded from the succession by the Act of Parliament which settled the crown on Henry's children by Anne, and all opposition to this settlement was made treason (1534). Thus began those extensions of the law of treason beyond the limits fixed under Edward III., which placed the sword in Henry's hands for his judicial murders.

In the same year Parliament both accomplished the severance of the Church of England from that of Rome, and provided against all future control of the Realm of England by the Pope. The Acts designed to effect these objects were followed in the autumn session by the famous *Act of Supremacy*, by which the king of England was declared *the only Supreme Head in earth of the Church of England*.* To deny or withhold this, or any of the king's titles, even in words, was made *high treason*; nor was the new law allowed to slumber.

Indeed the kingdom was threatened both with domestic and foreign war, as the penalty of its rebellion against Rome. An enthusiast, named Elizabeth Barton, styled by her followers "the Holy Maid of Kent," declared herself inspired by an angel to denounce the king's new marriage and divorce. An Act of attainder † was passed against the maid and several clergymen and others who had encouraged her, and they were executed at Tyburn (1534).

* In consequence of the Roman Catholic restoration under Mary, this title was borne only by Henry VIII. and Edward VI. It was not revived by the new Act of Supremacy under Elizabeth.

† On the meaning of *Attainder* see a note on page 190.

Besides Sir Thomas More, Bishop Fisher was the chief opponent of the divorce, and the king was resolved to humble or destroy them both. They were required to take the oath to maintain the succession as fixed by Parliament, and, on their refusal, they were committed to the Tower. About the same time the news arrived, that the Pope had annulled the king's divorce and required his submission, under the penalty of excommunication and deposition, and that the Emperor was preparing to give effect to the sentence by invading England; and a rebellion broke out in Ireland. All this was before the passing of the new laws of supremacy and treason, which were followed by Acts of attainder against Bishop Fisher and Sir Thomas More. The king gave orders that the clergy should preach and teach the doctrine of his supremacy: some of them, especially among the monastic orders, were as resolute in denying it. Several monks and priests were found guilty of treason for depriving the sovereign of his titles, and they suffered at Tyburn.

Next came the turn of the more exalted victims. The venerable Fisher, at the age of seventy-six, was found guilty on the same charge, and beheaded at Tower Hill (June 22). Sir Thomas More died at the same place on the 6th of July, enlivening his serene end with a wit as keen as the edge of the axe. A loud cry of indignation sounded through Europe; and POPE PAUL III., who had succeeded Clement VII. in 1534, prepared a bull of excommunication against Henry; but it was suspended through the influence of Francis.

Henry's breach with Rome must not be confounded with the adoption of Protestantism—the name which was now given to the doctrines of Luther from the *Protest*, which the Reformers had laid before the Diet of the Empire at Speyer, against its decree to support the Roman Catholic faith, in 1529. It is true that the doctrines taught by Wiclif had never died out of England, and Luther's movement found followers among those who held the sole supreme authority of the Scriptures. As early as 1524,

WILLIAM TYNDALE went to Luther at Wittemberg, and there translated the New Testament, which he published at Antwerp, as well as several of Wiclif's Tracts. But as yet the religious principles of the Reformation were by no means generally accepted, though there was a widespread dissatisfaction with the corruptions of the Church, and a growing resistance to the authority of the Pope as a foreign potentate. In the very act of abolishing the Pope's power in England, the Parliament of 1534 declared solemnly that they did not intend to decline from the Catholic faith of Christendom. The articles of that faith most impugned by Protestants were held by Henry with fierce zeal to his dying day. In the very year of the executions just related, Tyndale's Bible was burnt at Smithfield, and so were fourteen of the sect of Anabaptists (1535). In Henry's later years, Catholics and Protestants were dragged to execution, as traitors and as heretics, on the same hurdles.

The chief supporters of the Reformation, among the king's councillors, were Archbishop Cranmer and THOMAS CROMWELL, the Secretary of State. Cromwell, born at Putney in 1490, the son of a blacksmith, was in early life a soldier of fortune, and was afterwards in the household of the great Cardinal. His fidelity to Wolsey in his fall gained him the favour of Henry, which was retained for a few years by Cromwell's able and unscrupulous service. In 1535 he was appointed to an office never held before or since, that of VICAR-GENERAL, to execute the king's authority as Head of the Church. Cromwell issued a commission to visit the Monasteries and Universities; and the result was an Act of Parliament abolishing all the *Lesser Monasteries* (those with revenues under 200*l.* a year), and granting their property to the Crown (1536).

In the same session an Act was passed, incorporating WALES with the kingdom of England.

On the 2nd of May, Queen Anne Boleyn was suddenly sent to the Tower on a charge of unfaithfulness to her marriage vow. She was condemned for high treason, and beheaded in the Tower (May 29), and on the very next day

Henry married JANE SEYMOUR, whose attractions were the real cause of Anne's death. The king's marriage with Anne was pronounced by Cranmer to have been void from the beginning; and a new Parliament excluded Elizabeth from the succession, and settled the crown on the children of Henry and Jane Seymour. The king's joy at the birth of an heir (afterwards Edward VI.) was clouded by the death of Queen Jane (1537).

Meanwhile a decisive step was made in the progress of the Reformation by the publication of BISHOP COVERDALE'S *English Bible*, under the sanction of the king. It was ordered to be placed in all the parish churches, where the sacred volume was chained to a desk and laid open for all who could, to read. But the common people, for the most part, still clung to the old faith; the more so from the loss of the alms and other benefits which they had derived from the suppressed monasteries. A rebellion broke out in Lincolnshire, and its suppression was followed by one far more serious in Yorkshire. The *Pilgrimage of Grace* (such was the title which the rebels assumed) was led by a gentleman named Robert Aske; but it was soon joined by the Archbishop of York and many nobles and gentry, amongst whom were some old anti-Lancastrian names. The Duke of Norfolk found it necessary to make promises, to induce the pilgrims to disperse; but, as soon as a sufficient force was gathered, several of the leaders were seized and executed (1537). The disturbed districts were placed under a Council and President of the North, an office destined to become too famous in the hands of Strafford, the minister of Charles I.

In the next year, a peace between Charles V. and Francis I. encouraged Pope Paul III. to publish his bull of excommunication against the king of England (December, 1538). A new parliament completed the suppression of the *Greater Monasteries*, and granted their property to the king (1539). Part of this enormous wealth was devoted to education, part to the endowment of six new bishoprics, but most of it was lavished on Henry's cour-

tiers ; and to this source some of our great nobles still owe their fortunes. But Henry was equally resolved to force his people to an agreement with his views of religious doctrine, and he obtained from the same Parliament the "Statute of the Six Articles," so called from the six articles of Catholic faith, the denial of which was to be punished as heresy or felony. The chief adviser of this measure was STEPHEN GARDINER, Bishop of Winchester, who now became the head of the Catholic party, in opposition to Cranmer and Cromwell.

To strengthen the reforming party, Cromwell arranged a marriage between Henry and a Protestant princess, ANNE OF CLEVES. But the king took an aversion to his German wife from the first, and the marriage, which took place in January, was dissolved in July. Cromwell's failure involved his own ruin. He was attainted by Parliament, and was beheaded on Tower Hill only four days after Anne's divorce (July 28, 1540).

On the same day Henry married his fifth wife, CATHERINE HOWARD, sister to the Duke of Norfolk, who had been the chief agent in Cromwell's destruction. But, in little more than a year and a half, the new queen was executed on Tower Hill for the same crime for which Anne Boleyn had suffered, and of which Catherine Howard was probably guilty (1542). Thus the schemes of Norfolk against Cromwell recoiled upon himself and the extreme Catholic party. About a year and a half later, Henry married his sixth wife, CATHERINE PARR, who was a decided Protestant. She had the tact to humour the king's temper and opinions, and the good fortune to survive him, as did also the divorced queen Anne of Cleves.

Meanwhile Henry had declared war against Scotland, after an almost constant state of irregular hostilities on the border. The two great defeats of the Scots, at *Halidon Hill* and *Solway Moss*, broke the heart of King James V. He died at Falkland, only a week after the birth of his daughter, the ill-fated MARY STEWART (December, 1542).

The queen-mother, Mary, a member of the French family of Guise, governed with the aid of a council of regency. Henry now revived the sagacious proposal, made by Edward I. two centuries and a half before, for the marriage of the infant heirs to the two crowns of Britain. But the plan was broken off by CARDINAL BEATOUN, who obtained the chief power in the Scotch council. In conjunction with the queen-mother, Beatoun made a close alliance with France, and persecuted the Scotch Reformers, amongst whom JOHN KNOX now becomes conspicuous.

In 1544, an Act of Parliament finally settled the succession to the crown, restoring the rights of Mary and Elizabeth, after Edward and his heirs, and giving the king power to make further provision by will. Another memorable event of this year was the issue of an English translation of the Litany, ascribed to Henry's own pen. This was followed next year by forms of daily prayer in the English language.

The war still went on both with Scotland and France; while the former country was a prey to fierce religious conflicts. The bitter animosity of Henry estranged the English party among the Scottish nobles, and Cardinal Beatoun's triumph over the Reformers seemed complete, when the strong castle of St. Andrew's was surprised, and the Cardinal slain, by a body of conspirators (1546).

Towards the end of this year, Henry, whose health had been declining, was attacked by a spreading ulcer in the leg. Irritated by disease, and fearing the conflict of the Protestant and Catholic parties in the Council, which would break out upon his death, Henry caused the Duke of Norfolk, and his son, the Earl of Surrey, to be sent to the Tower on a charge of treason. The Duke, Thomas Howard, had served under his father, the victor at Flodden Field, and he had put down the great rebellion in the north. The Earl of Surrey, Henry Howard, was one of the most accomplished men of the day, and he ranks among the great poets of the Tudor age. But he was rash, haughty, and ambitious; and, in his anger

at being dismissed from the governorship of Boulogne, which Henry had taken in his war with France, Surrey uttered speeches which were regarded as treasonable. His real offence was, that he aspired to become the guardian of the young Prince Edward, when he should mount the throne, in opposition to the Earl of Hertford, brother of Queen Jane Seymour. Surrey was tried in haste, and executed on the 19th of January, 1547. A bill for the attainder of Norfolk was hurried through Parliament. It received the royal assent on the 27th, and the Duke was to have been executed on the morrow; but, early on that morrow's morn, Henry himself died. He had spent the preceding day in giving directions to the Earl of Hertford and Sir William Paget (the Secretary) for the care of his infant son and the government of the State. At night he sent for Cranmer, but when the archbishop reached Whitehall, the king was speechless. Cranmer, "speaking comfortably to him, desired him to give some token that he put his trust in God through Jesus Christ; therewith the king wrung the archbishop's hand." Henry died at two o'clock in the morning of January 28, 1547. He was buried at Windsor, according to his own desire.

In this summary of so long a reign many events have been omitted, not to perplex the memory and attention. The sufferings of the common people will be spoken of in the next reign. The remedies applied to social disorders in the "good old days" when "bluff King Hal" ruled over "merry England," are seen in Acts of Parliament for whipping vagabonds and sturdy beggars, cropping off their ears, and at last hanging them if they would not starve quietly; for branding with a hot iron felons who had cheated the gallows by taking sanctuary; and for boiling poisoners to death. As for capital punishments, it is reckoned that 72,000 persons were hanged in the thirty-eight years of Henry's vigorous rule; being *an average of above six every day*, excepting Sundays.

CHAP. XXIII.—EDWARD VI. TUDOR.

FROM JANUARY 28, 1547,* TO JULY 6, 1553.

Born, October 12, 1537. *Reigned*, 6½ years. *Age*, 16.

JUST an hour after the death of Henry, the young king's uncle, Edward Seymour, left Whitehall for his castle of Hertford, where his nephew was living. During that interval of an hour, the ambitious Earl had arranged with the Secretary, Sir William Paget, a plan for obtaining the chief power, in disregard of Henry's will. It was not till the morning of January 31st that the late king's death was made known, and EDWARD VI. proclaimed; and the same evening the young king arrived with his uncle at the Tower.

On that day the Council had met to read Henry's will, which committed the government to sixteen executors. Their names showed a manifest intention to keep the balance between Protestants and Catholics undisturbed during Edward's minority. None of them was to have authority above the rest, and Henry had expressly refused to name Hertford as Protector. But the Council no sooner met, than Paget proposed that a Protectorate should be created; and this was carried against the opposition of the Catholic party. Several of the councillors were soon raised to higher steps in the peerage. Hertford himself was made DUKE OF SOMERSET, by which title he is best known in history; his brother, Sir Thomas Seymour, was made *Lord Seymour of Sudeley*; and his old comrade in arms, and future rival, JOHN DUDLEY, Viscount Lisle, was made *Earl of Warwick*. A week later, Somerset was formally appointed Protector.

Meanwhile the young king had been crowned at Westminster (February 28). Edward was now in his tenth year, having been born at Hampton Court on the 12th of October, 1537. His precocious learning was encouraged by his weakness of body, which prevented him from

* At the accession of Edward VI. the practice first began of dating the reigns of our kings from the moment of the death of the predecessor.

making military exercises his chief amusement, as well as by the training of his learned father. His sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, were also well versed in the ancient classics and modern languages. Coming to the throne in his ninth year, and dying in his sixteenth, Edward had little share in the conflicts of the rival statesmen who governed in his name ; but his warm zeal for the Protestant religion made him take an active part in the progress of the Reformation, which gives the chief character to his reign.

The Protector Somerset assumed power, as the head of the Protestants, at a crisis of the religious contest in Europe. Henry VIII. was followed to the grave within two months by Francis I. of France. The new French king, Henry II., at once took part with the Scotch Catholics. The castle of St. Andrew's was surrendered to a French force on the last day of July ; and Somerset prepared to enforce the treaty of marriage between King Edward and Queen Mary. He gained a great victory at *Pinkie*, near Musselburgh (September 10). But the merciless conduct of the English, and the Protector's revival of the claim of supremacy over Scotland, united all parties against England. The Scottish Queen, now only in her fifth year, was soon after betrothed to the Dauphin Francis, and sent to France, where she was brought up by her mother's relatives, the family of Guise, in bitter hostility to Protestantism.

On the Protector's return home, a Parliament met to carry on the religious Reformation, in which decided steps had already been taken. A general visitation was set on foot, to enforce the Protestant preaching and practices, which the Council had already ordered. Gardiner and Bonner, who alone of the bishops dared to oppose these measures, were imprisoned ; but the former was released within a week. Both were afterwards deprived of their sees, and imprisoned till the accession of Queen Mary. Parliament repealed the statutes of Henry IV. and V. against the Lollards, and the Law of the Six Articles. They ordered that the communion should be administered

to the laity in both kinds (that is, the wine as well as the bread). They placed the appointment of bishops in the hands of the king. They vested in the Crown all the remaining revenues of ecclesiastical bodies, for the improvement of poor livings, and for the endowment of the Grammar Schools throughout the land, which still bear the name of King Edward.

Next year, Cranmer, assisted by divines who were invited over from the Continent, drew up the *First Book of Common Prayer*, which was enjoined by Parliament in the *First Act of Uniformity* (January, 1549). Forty-two *Articles of Religion** were drawn up in 1551, and the *Second Book of Common Prayer* was sanctioned in 1552. The Scriptures had already been appointed by the Council to be read in English in all churches, and a *Book of Homilies* had been issued by the same authority, as few of the clergy could preach sermons of their own making. But there were some whose preaching did more than all these measures to bring the common people to the reformed faith. Chief of these were HUGH LATIMER, who had resigned the bishopric of Worcester in the late reign, and JOHN HOOPER and NICHOLAS RIDLEY, who were made Bishops of Gloucester and London in 1550.

We must now turn to the political intrigues and conflicts, which made Edward's reign a prolonged scene of strife and violence. The Protector, proud, headstrong, and imprudent, was surrounded by rivals eager to supplant him. The first to try his strength was his own brother, Lord Seymour, who had married the Queen-dowager, Catherine Parr. Foiled in a plot to get the young king into his power, Seymour had used his office of High Admiral to prepare for an armed rising. He was attainted of treason by Parliament, and beheaded (March, 1549).

Troubles next arose from the general distress among the people. A long period of disorder had been accompanied by frequent dearths. The price of all the necessaries of

* These were altered in the reign of Elizabeth to the existing Thirty-nine Articles.

life was raised about threefold by the new supplies of gold and silver from America, without any corresponding rise in wages. The Government was wasteful and extravagant; and the new nobles strove to wring the utmost value from their grants of forfeited church property. The people, who understood little of these things, ascribed their distress to the enclosures of land for parks, and to the loss of the alms which the monasteries had dispensed. Armed insurrections broke out in the west, in favour of the old worship; and in many other parts, against enclosures and the general misgovernment. Somerset, by his attempts to conciliate the people, had incurred the hatred of the very men whose conduct now made him odious. But he was already unpopular for his pride and ostentation, which involved him in the further charge of sacrilege, when he pulled down several churches and bishops' palaces in the Strand, to build his mansion of *Somerset House*.*

In October, 1549, the conflict broke out in the Council, and Somerset was sent to the Tower. Parliament deposed him from all his offices, and forfeited a large part of his lands. In February, 1550, he was released on signing a full confession, and a formal reconciliation took place between him and Warwick, who had succeeded to his power, but without the title of Protector. Warwick, who had hitherto professed the Catholic religion, sought the favour of the king by pressing on the Reformation. He enriched his partisans with the forfeited estates of several bishops, and obtained for himself the title of DUKE OF NORTHUMBERLAND. An attempt by Somerset to renew his opposition caused his own condemnation and execution, which his royal nephew records in his Diary, in a tone that raises doubts whether prolonged life would not have proved Edward a true Tudor: "The Duke of Somerset had his head cut off upon Tower Hill between eight and nine o'clock in the morning" (January 22, 1552).

Within three months, Edward himself was stricken by

* The name is still retained by the noble and commodious edifice—a pattern for public offices—built on the same site under George III.

an attack of small-pox, which was followed by consumption. On the plea of securing a Protestant successor, Northumberland now formed a daring scheme to set aside both the Catholic Mary and the Protestant Elizabeth, in favour of his own family. The will of Henry VIII. had settled the crown (failing his own children and their issue) on the heirs of his sister, Mary Tudor, Queen-dowager of France and Duchess of Suffolk. That lady had three granddaughters, children of her daughter Frances and Henry Grey, Marquis of Dorset and Duke of Suffolk. The oldest of these, LADY JANE GREY, who was now sixteen, was made by Northumberland the instrument and victim of his ambition. He married her to his fourth son, LORD GUILDFORD DUDLEY, and persuaded the dying king to appoint Lady Jane his successor. Edward showed a flash of the Tudor spirit, in overbearing “with sharp words and an angry countenance” the remonstrances of the judges who were required to draw up the deed, which he could hardly persuade Cranmer to sign. It was subscribed by the Council on the 21st of June, and on the 6th of July the young king died at Greenwich. He was buried at Westminster on the 8th of August.



CHAP. XXIV.—MARY I. TUDOR.

FROM JULY 6, 1553, TO NOVEMBER 17, 1558.

Born, February 18, 1516. Reigned, $5\frac{1}{3}$ years. Age, 43.

THE Duke of Northumberland concealed the death of Edward from the people for three days, while he called the ladies Mary and Elizabeth to their brother's death-bed, in order to get them into his power. Mary had reached Hunsdon, in Hertfordshire, when the French ambassador sent her word of Edward's death. She fled to a castle of the Howards in Norfolk, and thence despatched a letter to the council, bidding them to proclaim her as queen (Sunday, July 9).

On the same day the king's death was published in
HIST. BRIT.

London, and Northumberland, with other lords, did homage to Lady Jane Grey at Sion House. At first Lady Jane refused the crown; but, convinced by her artful father-in-law that it was her right, she prayed God for grace to govern for His service and the welfare of His people. Next day she was proclaimed as "Queen Jane" amidst the silence of the people. When Northumberland left London to oppose Mary, whose friends had gathered round her in arms, most of the Council were preparing to support Mary, and they proclaimed her in London on the 19th of July. Northumberland was deserted by his soldiers at Cambridge. He was arrested and brought to the Tower, which now also became the prison, instead of the palace, of Lady Jane Grey and her husband.

On the 3rd of August, Mary arrived at the same fortress, amidst the acclamations of the citizens, with her sister Elizabeth and Queen Anne of Cleves, and released the Duke of Norfolk, Bishop Gardiner, and other Catholic prisoners. Northumberland, arraigned before his peers, pleaded guilty of treason, and was beheaded, declaring that he died in the Catholic faith (August 22). Gardiner was appointed Lord Chancellor; and on the 1st of October he crowned the queen, who remitted half of the last taxes imposed under Edward.

The Roman Catholic service had been restored in several churches of London directly after the queen's entrance, but not without some disturbances. The chief Protestant bishops were deposed; and Gardiner, Bonner, and other deprived Catholics, were restored to their sees. Hooper was committed to the Fleet prison, and Latimer was sent to the Tower to join Ridley and Coverdale, who had been arrested with Northumberland. Cranmer, who had published a declaration of his stedfastness to the reformed religion, was called before the Council and committed to the Tower.

The Parliament declared the legitimacy of Mary, annulled the laws of Edward concerning religion, and restored the form of divine service, as it had been in the last year of

Henry VIII. But they stopped short of restoring the supremacy of the Pope ; and Mary found it impossible as yet to receive her cousin, Cardinal Pole, who had been appointed Papal Legate to England. Caution was strongly urged by the Emperor Charles V., who was planning to marry his son, Don Philip of Spain, to the Queen of England. Charles feared that the Protestants, if driven to extremity, might rally round Elizabeth, and that his rival, France, might set up the claim of Mary Stewart. For the Queen of Scots was the next heir by right of birth, if Mary and Elizabeth Tudor were both considered illegitimate. The Emperor used his influence for the protection of Elizabeth, whose life was more than once threatened during her sister's reign.

Meanwhile the fallen rival, Lady Jane Grey, was brought to trial for treason at Guildhall, with her husband and his brothers, Ambrose and Henry Dudley, and Archbishop Cranmer. All pleaded guilty, and were sentenced to death. The fate of Cranmer was suspended, till the Pope's sentence of deposition from his archbishopric could be obtained ; that of Lady Jane and her husband was sealed by insurrections in various parts against the Spanish match. All these revolts were quickly put down, except that in Kent under Sir Thomas Wyatt, who defeated the Duke of Norfolk at Rochester, and marched on London. It was chiefly through the queen's own firmness that the attempt failed, and Wyatt, after making his way within Temple Bar, surrendered and was lodged in the Tower. The insurrection in the midland counties had been led by the Duke of Suffolk, whose rashness involved his daughter in his own fate. The young, fair, and pious Lady Jane Grey died meekly at the block, after seeing her husband walk to the scaffold on the Tower green and his headless corpse carried back (February 12, 1554). The Duke of Suffolk and Wyatt, as well as sixty or seventy others, were executed soon afterwards.

On the 20th of July, Don Philip landed at Southampton, and he was married to the queen at Winchester

on the 25th. Philip had the rank of King-consort, and all public acts were in the name of PHILIP and MARY. This union, on which Mary had set her heart, brought her only disappointment and neglect, unpopularity at home, and the final loss of her last possession on the Continent. She had lived to the age of thirty-eight amidst gloom and sorrow. Born at Greenwich in 1516, the bloom of her youth was blighted by her mother's wrongs. With a share of Catherine's Spanish gloom, Mary inherited a stedfast adherence to her faith, which exposed her to her father's anger. Her life had been spent in acts of devotion and charity; and the chief charm of her crown was in the means it gave her of bringing back England to the Catholic faith. Yearning for a partner in the future work of her life, she found herself joined to a husband eleven years younger than herself, gloomy and morose in temper, and only caring for his new kingdom, so far as its resources could be used to strengthen his power on the Continent and to arm him against French rivalry. Mary's disappointment embittered her religious zeal, and its worst excesses were regarded by her as a sacrifice, by which she hoped to win greater happiness from God. About a year after the marriage, Philip went to Brussels, to be present at his father's abdication (1555); and he only revisited England in 1557, to involve Mary in the war which caused the loss of Calais.

The queen's marriage was followed, in the same year, by the other event on which she had set her heart. Cardinal Pole, the Papal Legate, reached England in November, 1555, and pronounced the restoration of the realm of England to the unity of the Church. Parliament restored the powers of the bishops' courts, and renewed the statute of Henry IV. for the burning of heretics. Armed with these new powers, Bishop Gardiner, who was now the queen's chief adviser, began the *Marian Persecution* with the new year. He was zealously and cruelly supported by Bonner and some other bishops; nor can Pole be acquitted of sanctioning the persecution.

The first martyr was JOHN ROGERS, a prebendary of St. Paul's, who was burnt at Smithfield, "bathing his hands in the flame as if it had been cold water." HOOPER, who had been condemned with Rogers, was sent to suffer at his former see of Gloucester. RIDLEY and LATIMER were burnt at Oxford, bound back to back at the same stake, where Latimer uttered the prophetic words: "Be of good comfort, Master Ridley; play the man. We shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out." CRANMER, who had been condemned with them for heresy, beheld their death from the window of his prison-room, and his courage failed. He was wrought upon by promises and importunity to sign repeated recantations, and finally a most abject confession of his guilt, for Henry's divorce, and all the evils it had caused. To complete his humiliation, he was made to promise that he would repeat his confession when brought forth to die.

On the appointed day, Cranmer was placed on a platform in the crowded church of St. Mary, Oxford. The sermon preached by Cole, the provost of Eton, set forth the reasons for making an example of the leader of the schism, though he had recanted, and ended by praying him to perform the promise, "that you would openly express the true and undoubted profession of your faith." "I will do it," answered Cranmer; and, after a fervent prayer, he recalled all the recantations and confessions, which (he said) he had made only through fear of death, and abjured the Pope as Antichrist. He was pulled down from the platform and hurried to the stake, where he stretched forth his right hand to be burnt first, crying, "This hand hath offended." Cranmer's death made perhaps more impression on the common people than the teaching of the reformers (March 21, 1556).

Cardinal Pole, who was made Archbishop of Canterbury on the next day, was now Mary's chief stay and adviser, since the death of Gardiner in the previous year. It is needless to dwell on his measures for completing the restoration of the Roman Catholic religion, or on the details of

the persecution. In the last four years of Mary's reign, about 280 persons suffered at the stake. Meanwhile the queen was sinking into despondency, dying from an incurable disease, and troubled by conspiracies. Her misery was completed by the loss of Calais (January 7, 1558). She died on the 17th of November, and Cardinal Pole died on the same evening. Mary was buried in Henry VII.'s Chapel at Westminster, on the 13th of December, 1558.

CHAP. XXV.—ELIZABETH TUDOR.

FROM NOVEMBER 17, 1558, TO MARCH 24, 1603.

Born, September 7, 1533. Reigned, 44½ years. Age, 70.

ELIZABETH was proclaimed by the Council directly after the death of Mary, amidst universal acclamations. Protestants joyed over their deliverance: Catholics hoped much from the moderation of the Queen. Elizabeth was now twenty-five years old, in the pride of her stately beauty. She had been brought up in the Protestant principles of her mother's family, and she inherited her father's proud hostility to papal pretensions. But she disliked equally the Calvinistic doctrines and the tendency to religious republicanism, which had been introduced by foreign divines under her brother. She was heartily attached to the Episcopal Church of England, with all its forms and ceremonies that were not Popish; and, while refusing to conform to the Church of Rome, she had gratified her sister by hearing Mass. After more than one imprisonment, and no small peril to her life, she was living in retirement at Hatfield, when she received the crown which proved no less dangerous. She held it for forty-five years, amidst a succession of domestic and foreign plots against her throne, her life, and the liberties of England. In this conflict she committed faults; but her stedfast purpose and firm will, guided by ministers of singular ability, and

blessed by signal displays of Divine Providence, brought safety and glory, wealth and happiness, to her country. Much evil may be said of Elizabeth with truth; much more has been said with malignant falsehood: but, after all, in the long roll of England's sovereigns since the immortal Alfred, only one *king* has surpassed her in policy; only one *queen* has equalled her merits, without her faults.

On Sunday, the 20th of November, Elizabeth met the Council, and gave to SIR WILLIAM CECIL, who had taken measures for her quiet accession, his charge as Secretary of State. This great statesman, who was created LORD BURLEIGH in 1571, remained her chief minister till his death in 1598. The great seal was given to SIR NICHOLAS BACON (father of the famous Lord Bacon), as Lord Keeper. The queen entered London on the 24th, amidst great rejoicings, and released all religious prisoners. On Christmas Day she refused to hear Mass in her closet, and two days later a proclamation was issued, permitting the use of great parts of the church service in English, and forbidding the elevation of the host, and all unlicensed preaching.

The queen was crowned at Westminster, by the Bishop of Carlisle, on Sunday, the 15th of January, 1559. The Parliament declared her legitimacy and her title to the throne. They restored the statutes of Henry and Edward about religion, which had been repealed under Mary, and they passed a new *Act of Supremacy*, affirming "the ancient jurisdiction of the Crown over the estate ecclesiastical and spiritual," and denying "all foreign power repugnant to the same." The exercise of the queen's supremacy was vested in a Commission, from which arose the too famous *Court of High Commission*. An *Act of Uniformity* prescribed the use of the last service-book of Edward VI., with slight alterations. The bishops, with two exceptions, refused the oath of supremacy, and were gradually replaced by Protestant successors. MATTHEW PARKER was consecrated Archbishop of Canterbury about the end of the year.

The Parliament had joined with the Council in requesting the queen to be pleased to take a husband. Her reply

ended with the famous declaration—"As for me, it shall be sufficient that a marble shall declare, that a queen, having lived and reigned so many years, died a virgin." A few days afterwards, she gave a final refusal to the proposal of marriage, which Philip had made in the hope of keeping Spain and England united against France. Peace was made with France, and Calais was finally given up.

Philip made an alliance with France, and married the daughter of Henry II. In a tournament held to celebrate the nuptials, Henry was accidentally killed, and the crown of France passed to his son, FRANCIS II., a youth of sixteen, who had been married a year before to MARY STEWART, Queen of Scots. Immediately on this marriage, the Dauphin had quartered the arms of England with those of France, and assumed the title of King; thus claiming the throne of England for Mary against Elizabeth.

Meanwhile it seemed that North Britain was about to become a province of France. The "Lords of the Congregation"—as the Protestant leaders called themselves—entered Edinburgh in triumph at Midsummer, but they were driven out by the arrival of French troops at Leith,* in August. They appealed to Elizabeth for help, and an English army crossed the border, while a fleet laid siege to the French in Leith. The Queen-regent of Scotland, Mary of Guise, died in June, 1560, and the garrison of Leith was compelled to yield through famine. Peace was made shortly afterwards, and the Scottish Estates established Presbyterianism as the religion of Scotland.

Queen Mary refused to ratify the treaty, and lived in France till the early death of her husband (1560). Then the Scotch Protestants, who were beginning to regard Elizabeth with jealousy, invited their young queen home. In her nineteenth year, the widowed Mary sailed from Calais, bidding a sad and last farewell to her "dear France" (1561). On reaching Scotland, she soon found herself at open variance with John Knox and the staunch Protestants; but she was guided for a time by the moderate counsels of her

* Leith is the seaport of Edinburgh.

natural brother, James Stewart, whom she created Earl of Murray, and who was afterwards the leader of the Protestants. Mary professed friendship and deference for the Queen of England, but refused to ratify the treaty of Leith.

Elizabeth had begun to show her cautious policy towards both enemies and friends. Anxious to keep on good terms with Philip, she hesitated to refuse an offer of marriage from his cousin, the Archduke Charles of Austria. But her affections leaned to one whose name has since been linked with hers by the genius of romance, though with some distortion of history.* ROBERT DUDLEY, fourth son of the Duke of Northumberland, had been married, in 1550, to Amy, daughter of Sir John Robsart, as we still read in the diary of Edward VI. From motives of ambition, Dudley kept his wife in retirement at Cumnor Hall, near Oxford, where she was found dead at the foot of a staircase (1560). Rumour charged Dudley with murdering his wife, to clear the way for a marriage with the queen. Be this as it may, he became the favourite of Elizabeth, who created him Earl of Leicester in 1563.

The Parliament of 1563 completed the Protestant establishment of religion, and subjected all who refused to take the oath of supremacy to the penalties of treason. The Catholic *Council of Trent*, which concluded its sittings in this same year, had condemned the practice of evading the penal laws by occasional attendance at the parish church. It now became common for the youth of the best Catholic families to be sent abroad for education in schools called *Seminaries*, which were conducted chiefly by Jesuits, and whence many of them returned as devoted missionaries, to peril their lives for the restoration of England to the faith.

The most famous of these was the Seminary founded at *Douay* in French Flanders (1568) by DR. WILLIAM ALLEN, a Jesuit priest, who had fled from England. The College was dedicated to St. Thomas Becket, and had an English press, from which proceeded (among many other works)

* The Queen's visit to Leicester at Kenilworth, immortalized by Sir Walter Scott's novel, was made in 1575, fifteen years after the death of Amy Robsart.

the *Douay Version* of the Bible in English (published in 1609). In the first five years, Allen sent over nearly 100 missionaries to England.

On the other hand, the new ecclesiastical settlement produced another party at the opposite extreme. Many of the more zealous reformers, who had fled abroad from the Marian persecution, were offended at the ceremonies and vestments and ornaments of the churches, which were retained under Elizabeth. These advocates of what they deemed a purer form of worship were called, at first in derision, PURITANS. Elizabeth resented their scruples as disobedience to her authority, and as tending to bring a sort of republican freedom into the Church. Her desire for the enforcement of the Act of Uniformity was resisted by the moderate counsels of Parker. But the Archbishop was at length compelled to preside over an ecclesiastical commission, which suspended several clergymen. Those who still refused compliance were called *Nonconformists*; and when they began to meet in congregations of their own, they became "the separation," or *Dissenters*. It was not, however, till a much later period in the reign of Elizabeth that they were severely persecuted.

The affairs of Scotland were now inseparably connected with the interests of England. A constant intercourse, friendly in tone, was kept up between the queens and cousins, especially in relation to Mary's marriage. Elizabeth declared that an alliance with either of the great Catholic powers would be an act of enmity to England. She proposed the Earl of Leicester. But Mary, in opposition both to Elizabeth and the Scotch Protestants, chose her first-cousin, HENRY, LORD DARNLEY; thus uniting herself with another prospective heir to the English throne* (1565). Her young and handsome husband soon disgusted her by his profligacy and arrogance, while she sought pleasure with the freedom to which she had been used in France.

Among the musicians whom Mary had brought over in her train, an Italian, named DAVID RIZZIO, was

* See the Table of the House of Stewart.

admitted to her society, and influenced her counsels. Darnley, who had turned Catholic to gain the hand of Mary, now joined the remnant of the Protestant lords, to gratify his jealousy and revenge. On the night of Saturday, March 9, 1566, Mary was at supper with Rizzio, when Darnley entered, followed by his uncle, Lord Ruthven, ghastly pale as he had risen from a sick-bed. While Rizzio clung to the queen's dress, the other conspirators rushed in, dragged him through the adjoining bedchamber to the head of the staircase, and despatched him with fifty-six wounds. Darnley's dagger was left sticking in Rizzio's body. "I will never rest," said Mary to her brutal husband, "till I give you as sorrowful a heart as I have at this present." Shortly afterwards her son, JAMES STEWART, was born at Edinburgh (June, 1566).

In preparing her revenge on her husband, Mary was aided by her lover, JAMES HEPBURN, EARL OF BOTHWELL, who joined four other nobles in a bond for the king's destruction. Darnley lay ill at Glasgow; and Mary removed him, for the sake of better air (she said), to a lonely house in the suburbs of Edinburgh, called *Kirk-a-Field*. On Sunday evening, the 9th of February, 1567, the queen went from a feast, which she was giving at Holyrood, to visit her husband, and parted from him with a kiss and the present of a ring. As she returned to the feast, Mary remarked to an attendant, "It was just this time last year that Rizzio was slain." At two o'clock next morning, the house of Kirk-a-Field was blown up by gunpowder, which the servants of Bothwell had laid beneath Darnley's room while Mary was sitting at his bedside. The bodies of Darnley and his page were found under a tree forty yards from the house.

Bothwell was accused by Darnley's father, the Earl of Lennox; but he came into the city with an armed force, and was acquitted. A fortnight later, Bothwell met the queen on a journey, and carried her off with a mock show of violence to his castle of Dunbar; and on the 15th of May they were married at Edinburgh. Upon this

the Lords of the Congregation took up arms, and met the queen and Bothwell at *Carberry Hill*, near Edinburgh (Sunday, June 15). Mary's troops were unwilling to fight in so bad a cause, and she accepted the promise of safety on condition of renouncing Bothwell.* The queen returned to Edinburgh with the army, amidst the execrations of the soldiers and the people. On the next night she was carried a prisoner to the island castle of Lochleven; and there she was forced to sign her abdication (July 24).

Two days afterwards, her son, who was little more than a year old, was crowned at Stirling as JAMES VI. of Scotland. The Earl of Murray, who had been absent in England during these events, was made Regent, and the Presbyterian Church establishment was restored. But the Catholics never ceased to plot for Mary's release and restoration; till at length, love for her moved George Douglas, son of the owner of the castle, to effect her escape from Lochleven (May 2, 1568). Only eleven days later, the army which had gathered round the queen was defeated by Murray at *Langside*, on the Clyde, near Glasgow. Mary fled sixty miles to the shore of the Solway, and crossed the Firth in an open fishing-boat to Workington in Cumberland. She was conducted to Carlisle, to await Elizabeth's answer to the letter by which Mary had thrown herself on "her sister's" protection. That answer expressed sisterly sympathy, but announced the decision of the Council, that the charges against Mary must be investigated.

Commissioners named by Mary, the Scotch government, and Elizabeth, met at York on the 4th of October. The president was THOMAS HOWARD, DUKE OF NORFOLK, son of that Earl of Surrey whom Henry had beheaded. Norfolk was a Protestant, and it was the desire of Cecil, and many others of the Council and nobility, to marry the presumptive heir of the English crown to the first nobleman of England. Murray was therefore induced to content himself with a

* Bothwell became an outlaw, and, being thrown into prison in Norway, died there mad, ten years after these events.

private communication of his strongest proofs to the Commissioners. These were certain love letters between Mary and Bothwell, found in a casket belonging to Mary, which, if genuine, clearly proved her guilty knowledge of her husband's murder. The letters were sent to Elizabeth, who removed the conference to Westminster, under her own eye. Murray now produced the "casket letters" before the Council. Mary's claim to answer the charge in person before Elizabeth was refused, and she rejected the private advice, to resign the crown in favour of her son. The northern Catholic nobles now began to conspire for her release. The arrest of Norfolk, whose scheme of marriage was betrayed to Elizabeth by Leicester, was the signal for a revolt of the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland, who were obliged to fly to Scotland. At the beginning of the new year (1570) the Regent Murray was assassinated by James Hamilton of Bothwellhaugh. The Catholic lords, who regained power for a short time in Scotland, called on Elizabeth to restore their queen; and her refusal was followed by an indecisive war upon the border.

Other events make this new year (1570) a memorable epoch in our history. The cautious policy of Elizabeth towards France and Spain had secured peace for her first ten years (1558–1568). But these, her "haleyon days," were followed by the twenty years' conflict, partly of war, but still more of constant plots against her life, which came to its great crisis in the attempted invasion by the Armada. The storm gathered in the neighbouring country of the Netherlands, which had long been connected with England by commerce, and was now united with her in the decisive trial of the fate of Protestantism.

The reformed religion had been early embraced by the wealthy and industrious citizens of the Dutch and Flemish towns, and the dying injunction of Charles V. had left to his willing son the work of extirpating heresy. In 1566, the Netherlands revolted against their cruel persecutors. Philip II. now passed *a formal sentence of death upon the whole people*, and entrusted its execution to the DUKE OF

ALVA (June, 1567). No less than 1800 persons were put to death during the first three months of Alva's rule. But WILLIAM OF NASSAU, Prince of Orange, and Stadholder of the province of Holland,* gathered a force and began the long war of independence. This hero, and head of a family of heroes in the cause of liberty, was called WILLIAM THE SILENT, from his power of keeping his own counsel. He was born in 1533; and the Emperor Charles V. had leaned upon his shoulder at the ceremony of handing over the Netherlands to the son, from whom that young man was destined to wrest a large part of those provinces.

The fugitives from the persecution in the Netherlands had roused popular sympathy with their cause in England, and the country was soon drawn into hostilities, without a state of declared war. The adventurous mariners of England had already begun those voyages, to share the slave-trade and treasures of the New World and the African coast, which passed into a system of preying on Spanish commerce. On the other hand, Philip was constantly fomenting conspiracies in England, and for twenty years Elizabeth was surrounded by a net of Spanish intrigue, while France was busy in attempts to gain Scotland.

The zeal of Pope Pius V. took a more decided course. Finding that the loyalty, which has always been a noble character of the English Catholics, had kept them back from the late revolt, he issued his famous *Bull of Excommunication* against Elizabeth, absolving her subjects from their allegiance (1570). On this provocation, the English Parliament in the following year enacted new laws against the Catholics. They made it treason to call the queen a heretic or usurper, or to bring in bulls from Rome; and in 1572 new measures were passed, aimed especially against attempts to rescue Mary Stewart. A conspiracy for this purpose brought the Duke of Norfolk to the block.

The same year forms a memorable epoch of the religious

* The country called the Netherlands (*i.e.* Lowlands), and now forming the kingdoms of Holland and Belgium, consisted of a number of provinces, each having its own independent local government. (See p. 159.)

conflicts in France. The queen mother, Catherine de' Medici, planned with the Guises the extirpation of the Protestants by the *Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day* in Paris, and induced her son, Charles IX., to take part in that crime, unparalleled for its union of treachery and cruelty (1572). Gregory XIII., who had just succeeded to the papal crown, offered a public thanksgiving for the deed under the dome of St. Peter's; but no greater blow could have been given to the Catholic cause in England.

For seven years there is little to record in the domestic history of Britain. The irregular adventures of the daring mariners to the "Spanish Main" trained our sailors for the great coming conflict. In 1577, *Francis Drake* sailed on the voyage in which the world was circumnavigated for the first time, and he was knighted by Elizabeth on his return (1580).

In the Netherlands, the Prince of Parma, grandson of Charles V., put down the rebellion in the southern, or Belgian, provinces; whereupon the seven northern provinces solemnly renounced the sovereignty of Philip, and proclaimed their independence by the title of "The United Provinces of the Netherlands" (1581). The Protestant state thus formed is commonly called *Holland*, from the chief of the Seven Provinces. The southern provinces, which were forced back into Catholicism, were called the Spanish or Austrian Netherlands. The distinction thus created survives to the present day in the Protestant kingdom of Holland and the Catholic kingdom of Belgium.

Both the kingdoms of Great Britain were now entering on a new crisis, and their history becomes more closely connected. In Scotland, James was declared of age, though he was only in his twelfth year. The boy-king already showed that fondness for favourites which possessed him all his life long; and his first favourites brought him over to the interests of France. The Regent Earl of Morton was accused of a part in Darnley's murder: and, after a mockery of trial, he was sentenced to a fate not undeserved for other acts of tyranny. Morton was believed

by an instrument called *the Maiden* (resembling the modern guillotine), which he had himself brought into Scotland from Halifax in Yorkshire (1581). With him fell the influence of England in Scotland, and Elizabeth for a long time pursued the policy of using the claims of Mary and James as a check upon each other.

It was at this time also that the throne of Elizabeth, and even her life, was attacked by the seminary priests from abroad, who lurked about in hiding-places contrived in the thick walls and behind the chimneys of the houses of the Catholic gentry. In 1577 the Council began to put these emissaries to death under the penal Acts. This is not the place to discuss the conduct either of the zealots or the Government. It must be remembered, on the one hand, that none were executed simply as Roman Catholics, but those only who were adjudged traitors ; but, on the other hand, the law had made the mere denial of the queen's supremacy to be treason.

In 1580, a new and terrible power was brought into play. The zealous Allen (see p. 153) persuaded Pope Gregory XIII. to send a mission of Jesuits to England, led by two Englishmen who had been Protestants, Edmund Campian and Robert Parsons. Their avowed object was the conversion of the country, but their instructions were drawn in the spirit of the Bull of Pius V. The Parliament of 1581 met this movement by new penal laws against Catholic worship and education ; and they made it *treason* to reconcile any person to the Church of Rome. Campian was arrested, and, after severe torture, was executed as a traitor, suffering with the courage of a high-minded enthusiast. Parsons, whose character was far less pure, escaped, to continue the contest by his writings till the reign of James I. Many other Jesuits and seminary priests were executed ; and conspiracies were discovered for the invasion of England from Spain, France, and Scotland.

A new Act was, therefore, passed “for the surety of the queen's most royal person, and the continuance of the realm in peace.” This Act legalized an *Association*, the members

of which had bound themselves to avenge to the death any attempt on the queen's life, and to exclude from the throne whosoever should authorize, or design to profit by, any such attempt; words which plainly pointed at Mary Stewart. Another Act ordered all Jesuits and seminary priests to leave the kingdom on pain of treason, and all students in foreign seminaries to return home.

At the same time new dangers threatened from the Continent. In the Netherlands, the great port and fortress of Antwerp (the best place for preparing an expedition against England) was on the point of surrendering to the Prince of Parma. Not till too late to save it, did Elizabeth consent to send a small army to the Netherlands; and Antwerp fell on the 17th of August, 1585. The Earl of Leicester, who was sent to take the command in the Netherlands, accepted the sovereignty of the United Provinces in the name of Elizabeth; but she was enraged at being thus committed to hostility with Philip. Shortly afterwards Sir Francis Drake returned from a successful expedition against the coasts of Spain and the West Indies. As if to bring all these elements of war to a point, the new Pope, SIXTUS V., was induced by Allen to call on Philip to put the Bull of Pius V. into execution. In France the extreme Catholic party, called the League, were planning for the Duke of Guise to invade England through Scotland. But Philip would only act on the condition of having the succession to England's crown for himself. This state of suspense was ended by a stroke which brought on the great crisis of England's danger and glory under Elizabeth.

In 1586, the intercepted letters of Mary Stewart revealed a plot for the murder of Elizabeth and her chief ministers, and for the invasion of England by the Prince of Parma. The plot is called *Babington's Conspiracy*, from the name of a young English gentleman, who was one of its chief promoters, and who confessed his guilt with the frankness of a defeated enthusiast. Babington and thirteen other conspirators were executed at Tyburn. The intercepted letters, if genuine, proved Mary's knowledge

and approval of the whole plot, and a Commission was appointed for her trial at Fotheringay Castle, in Northamptonshire. Mary consented to appear, not to be tried as an accused criminal, but to hear and refute the charges made against her. She denied all knowledge of the plot, and declared vehemently and with tears, “I would never make shipwreck of my soul by conspiring the destruction of my dearest sister.” Elizabeth recalled the Commissioners to Westminster; and there they pronounced Mary guilty of compassing the queen’s death. The people received the publication of the sentence with illuminations and bonfires. Parliament addressed the queen for the execution of the sentence; but Elizabeth asked them to “find some other way.” France remonstrated earnestly against the condemnation of her queen dowager, and James VI. pleaded, but far less warmly, for his mother’s life. The Protestant party had regained power in Scotland just a year before, and James had been bribed, with a pension and a present of hunting dogs, to make a close alliance with Elizabeth. He looked upon his mother as a rival; and Mary cursed her son, and made a will transferring her claims to Philip II.

At last Elizabeth signed the death-warrant on the 1st of February, 1587; and Burleigh and the Council resolved to execute it before it could be recalled. On Wednesday, the 8th, Mary was beheaded in the hall of Fotheringay Castle, dying in stedfast adherence to the faith which she was importuned to change, and with the courage which had never failed her through all the trying scenes of her unhappy life. She was still only in the forty-fifth year of her age, but in the nineteenth of her captivity. Her body was afterwards laid in Henry VII.’s Chapel at Westminster by her son, who reared gorgeous monuments both to his mother and her destroyer on the opposite sides of the same chapel. Elizabeth received the news of Mary’s death with a burst of grief and indignation. She protested to France and Scotland that she had never intended the execution; and a scapegoat was made of her

secretary Davison, who was fined 10,000*l.* and imprisoned by the Star Chamber. The interest of James, and the occupation of King Henry III. with the League of the Guises against him, did more to pacify their anger than all Elizabeth's protestations.

With Philip of Spain the case was different. The same stroke had opened the way for his own claim to the English crown, and armed him with the vengeance of Catholic Christendom. Before relating his great attempt and signal failure, we must glance back to see the end of one of Elizabeth's chief worthies in the Netherlands. The English army there had been kept almost useless through the queen's indecision and parsimony, as well as through Leicester's incapacity. At last an ill-planned attack on *Zutphen* brought a severe blow on the English army, and on the country the irreparable loss of SIR PHILIP SIDNEY.

At the early age of thirty-two, Sidney had won the highest fame for bravery and virtue, grace and letters; and his end was worthy of his life. As he was borne to the rear, mortally wounded and thirsty with loss of blood, he called for drink; but, in the act of putting it to his mouth, he saw a poor wounded soldier carried along, who cast a ghastly look of longing at the bottle. "Thy necessity," said Sidney, "is yet greater than mine," as he gave up the water to the poor man. His last words to his sorrowing comrades were: "Love my memory; cherish my friends. Above all, govern your will and affections by the will and word of your Creator; in me beholding the end of this world and all her vanities." He died the next day (September 23, 1586).

The winter was spent abroad in preparation and expectation for the attempt of Philip to add Britain to his dominions, and to crush the Protestant religion both in England and the Netherlands. Pope Sixtus V. renewed the excommunication of Elizabeth; he appointed Allen Cardinal and Archbishop of Canterbury, to play the part of Pole again; and he summoned adventurers from every part of Europe to the holy enterprise. A fleet, called,

with a pride which its fate turned into irony, the INVINCIBLE ARMADA, was collected in the ports of Spain and Portugal; for Portugal had been conquered by Philip. Its chief object was to sweep the Channel and the Straits, while the forces of Parma crossed from the Netherlands to England. But the Armada also carried above 20,000 soldiers, including many volunteers of the best blood of Spain, with refugees from England, Scotland, and Ireland. Besides these, there were bands of Jesuits, seminary priests, and Inquisitors. The troops were embarked in sixty-five sailing vessels, called *galleons*, built of immense strength, and with lofty towers at the forecastle and poop. There were eight large long ships of war, propelled by oars; four of them Portuguese *galleys*, and four still larger Italian *galleasses*. The latter carried each fifty guns, were rowed by 300 slaves, and were decorated like palaces. To these were added a crowd of smaller vessels.

The preparations had been continued for three years, while Elizabeth was intent on preserving peace. With only her half-consent, Drake—the Nelson of that age—had attacked the harbours of Cadiz and Corunna, and, in his own words, “singed the king of Spain’s beard.” Besides a vast destruction of stores and transports, he taught his sailors by experience that “the Spaniards were but sons of mortal men, for the most part enemies of the truth, upholders of Dagon’s image, which had fallen before the ark.” It was only the queen’s positive command, that prevented Drake from attacking the main body of the Armada in the Tagus (April-July, 1587).

It was not till the autumn—the very time first fixed by Philip for the invasion—that serious preparations were begun in England against the attack expected next year. All the efforts made by the nobility and gentry, with scarcely a distinction between Protestant and Catholic, only gathered the militia to their posts in time to celebrate the victory won upon the sea. There was then, as in all ages, England’s true defence; and it was directed by the captains who had carried the flag of Elizabeth round

the world, battling with Spain in the tropics, or with ice in the Arctic seas. The fact, that the Lord High Admiral—Charles Howard, Lord Effingham—was a *Catholic*, proves the confidence that existed between Elizabeth's government and the loyal Catholic gentry of England. The Vice-Admiral was Sir Francis Drake: the Rear-Admiral, rough old John Hawkins. The largest ship, the *Triumph*, of only 1100 tons, was commanded by the Arctic navigator, Martin Frobisher. The whole number of Queen's ships was only 34, with 837 guns and 6729 seamen. The merchant-ships, privateers, and those fitted out by some of the captains at their own cost, raised the total to 197 vessels. Their tonnage was but half that of the Spaniards; but the number of seamen (nearly 16,000) was just double; and these were fighting men as well as sailors, trained to the rapid movements, by which the light English vessels danced round their cumbrous enemies.

The Armada, blessed by the Pope, left Lisbon in May, 1588, under the command of the highly noble Duke of Medina Sidonia, in place of Philip's best Admiral, who died when most wanted. It was scattered by a storm, but was gathered at Corunna, and sailed again on the 13th of July. On the 19th, the Armada was seen entering the Channel with a fair wind, spreading over a width of eight miles, in the shape of a crescent moon with the horns thrown back.

The English fleet, sailing out of Plymouth, gained what sailors call the “weather-gage”* in the enemy's rear during the night of the 20th; so that their lighter ships could attack or bear off at their will. Next morning, Sunday, the 21st, Lord Howard began the fight, his best ships sailing along the enemy's rear, and firing rapidly into the Spanish galleons as they passed each. On the 25th, there was a closer engagement off the Isle of Wight; and on Saturday, the 27th, the Armada cast anchor in Calais roads, to wait for the Duke of Parma, who dared not put to sea while the English fleet was unbroken. A shoal covered the Armada from attack; and the English had only powder left for one day.

* This phrase—essential for the understanding of sea-fights—signifies the getting *to windward* of an enemy's fleet.

Sunday, the 28th, passed in quiet; and the night found the Spaniards secure, and sleeping after their hard week. But, at midnight, they were roused by eight fire-ships drifting down upon their anchored vessels. They had long since confessed their fear of “the English fireworks.” In wild alarm they slipped their cables, and were driven by the wind past the Flemish coast which they were to have covered, past the mouth of the Thames which they were to have commanded, on, and still on, into the German Ocean, to seek a return round the north of Britain and the storm-beaten shores of Ireland. Drake and Howard pursued as far as the Firth of Forth, returning in face of the storm, which prevented Parma from even attempting to cross, and which completed the destruction of the Armada. Medina Sidonia regained Corunna in October with fifty-two shattered ships, their crews and soldiers dying with pestilence. Philip coolly wrote orders, from his new palace of the *Escurial*,* to build a new Armada.

Queen Elizabeth had been constantly present, in spirit with the fleet, and in person with the army, which was slowly gathered to protect London. To the former she sent the prayer which was read in all the ships on the decisive Sunday; among the latter she constantly appeared in the camp at Tilbury on the Thames. In the Tower of London we still see her effigy, arrayed as when she rode through the lines, with Leicester at her bridle-rein, speaking words of confidence to men whose loyalty she had been told to distrust, and telling them how she was “resolved, in the midst and heat of the battle, to live or die amongst you all; to lay down for my God and for my kingdom and for my people, my honour and my blood even in the dust. I know,” she added, “I have the body but of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart and stomach of a King, and of a King of England too.”

On Sunday, the 24th of November, Elizabeth went in state to St. Paul’s to join in the thanksgiving to God, offered

* This famous palace, monastery, and library, near Madrid, was built by Philip II. in the form of a gridiron in honour of St. Lawrence. It was finished in 1586, and was partly burnt down in October, 1872.

on that day in every English church, “for His gracious favour extended towards us in our deliverance and defence, in the wonderful overthrow and destruction showed by His mighty hand on our malicious enemies the Spaniards, who had thought to invade and make conquest of the realm.”

Nor was England saved from Spain alone. The Guise family in France had long been plotting both with James VI. and Philip II.; and the Duke of Guise had recovered power only just too late to take part in the great invasion. Before the end of the year, the Duke was treacherously assassinated by King Henry III., who was killed in his turn by the knife of a fanatic monk (August, 1589). The crown of France devolved on the Protestant HENRY IV., the first King of the *House of Bourbon*, who defeated the League in the great battle of *Ivry* (March, 1590). Elizabeth aided him in the war, which was at last ended by Henry’s consent to profess the Roman Catholic faith. But he established religious toleration in France by the famous *Edict of Nantes* (April 15th, 1598).

The destruction of the Armada saved the Protestant Netherlands, as well as England. The Spaniards were driven out of the United Provinces two years later; but the independence of the Provinces was not recognized till 1609. We shall soon see what important relations the Dutch Republic had with England.

The war with Spain was continued chiefly by those expeditions against her American possessions, which paved the way for the colonizing enterprises of England. The first step in that work (though it proved unsuccessful) had been taken by SIR WALTER RALEIGH, in the settlement which he named *Virginia*, after the queen.* Attacks were also made on the coasts of Spain, and aid was given to Henry IV. of France in recovering the places held by Philip in Brittany. The recapture of Brest cost the life of Sir Martin Frobisher (1594); and next year Sir Francis

* The colony of Virginia was founded anew under James I. in 1606 and 1610.

Drake and Sir John Hawkins died miserably in the West Indies. Philip never gave up the idea of renewing the invasion ; and his preparations led to a united English and Dutch expedition against Cadiz (1596). The city was taken, and the Spanish fleet burnt, by ROBERT DEVEREUX, EARL OF ESSEX, who had succeeded Leicester in the favour of Elizabeth. But the Earl's desire to hold the place was overruled by his council of war, and hence began a bitter feud between Essex and Sir Walter Raleigh.

Their rivalry was let loose by the death of Lord Burleigh (1598). His second son, SIR ROBERT CECIL, who now became Elizabeth's chief councillor, sided with Raleigh against Essex ; and the young Earl's imperious temper hurried him into personal quarrels with his mistress.

IRELAND had been the chosen vantage-ground of the Popish and Spanish intrigues against Elizabeth ; but the details are too intricate to pursue here. The island had been for five years in open rebellion under Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, when Essex, after a violent quarrel with the queen, was sent over as Lord-lieutenant (March, 1599). Six months later, Essex left his post, to excuse his ill-success, and rushed unbidden into the queen's presence. He was soon afterwards banished from the court ; and he formed a plot to overthrow his rivals, to which his own folly gave the air of treason. After a futile attempt to rouse the citizens of London to arms, Essex was condemned by his Peers for treason, and he was beheaded in the Tower at the age of thirty-four (1601).

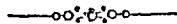
In the same year Elizabeth met her last Parliament, which passed the *First Act for the Relief of the Poor*. Its object was to provide work or food for every destitute person. This session is also memorable for the Queen's declaration of her resolution to amend the abuses of *patents* and *monopolies*, which enriched court favourites by the exclusive right of manufacturing and trading in certain articles. The imperious daughter of Henry had often addressed her Parliaments in the tone of a despot, rated them soundly for not complying with her wishes, and punished members

with imprisonment. But the free English spirit had ever grown stronger and stronger; and Elizabeth showed that great saving virtue of the Tudors—the knowing how and when to give way. The parting words in which she answered the thanks of Parliament for this concession, may fitly sum up the story of her reign:—“Though you have had, and may have, many princes more mighty and wise, sitting in this seat, yet you never have had, or shall have, any that will be more careful and loving.”

Elizabeth reached the last year of her three-score and ten in a state of bodily exhaustion, which clouded her last months with despondency. She died at Richmond on the 24th of March, 1603, and was buried in the Chapel of Henry VII. at Westminster (April 28).

The reign of Queen Elizabeth ended almost exactly with the *Sixteenth Century*, the age which completed the passage from the medieval to the modern state of Europe. In England, above all other states, firm government had been established, after a century of disputed succession and civil wars. The great contest of the Reformation had been fought out; and that of constitutional freedom, which was to occupy the next century, had fairly begun. But first, the crown and people had won the common victory of civil and religious liberty against the threatened universal despotism of Spain and Rome. England had established her supremacy upon the sea, and spread her commerce over the world.

The mighty impulses of mind, which had done all this, produced the still nobler fruit of a Literature which has never been surpassed. In poetry, Surrey, Wyatt, Spenser, and a host of lesser writers, had already been eclipsed by SHAKSPERE; and prose had reached its perfection in the works of More and Ascham, under Henry and Edward; and of Hooker, Sidney, Spenser, Raleigh, and many more, under Elizabeth. For vigour, both of thought and language, the *Age of Elizabeth* forms the true climax of English Literature.



CHAP. XXVI.—THE HOUSE OF STEWART.

JAMES I. STEWART.

FROM MARCH 24, 1603, TO MARCH 27, 1625.

Born, June 19, 1566. *Reigned*, in Scotland, 58 years; in England, 22 years. *Age*, 59.

ELIZABETH died at three o'clock in the morning, and before ten o'clock James VI. of Scotland was proclaimed at Whitehall as James I. King of England, France, and Ireland. He afterwards assumed the title of "King of Great Britain."

The family of Henry VIII. having ended with Elizabeth, James, as the great-grandson of Margaret Tudor, the elder daughter of Henry VII., was regarded by common consent as the rightful heir. The principle of hereditary right, which was thus acknowledged, agreed with the great object of uniting the two British crowns. Sir Robert Cecil and the Council had prepared for the quiet accession of the Scotch king. A messenger rode in three days to Edinburgh, carrying to James a ring which had been taken from the queen's finger as soon as she died.*

James turned his face to England as "the land of promise"—such was his own expression to the followers on whom he loved to bestow its riches—and he left his native land without regret. He was now in the thirty-seventh year of his age, and the thirty-sixth of his reign over Scotland. His life had been passed amidst storms and troubles, from which he had gained little honour or true wisdom. Good natural abilities and early training had made him precociously learned; but he was full of conceit of his own wisdom. At the age of sixteen, he was described by a keen observer as "an old young man." He

* Carey left Richmond on Thursday morning, and reached Holyrood on Saturday night (March 26); the messenger of the Council not arriving till the following Tuesday. Such speed was possible just because the journey was performed on horseback, through an open country, where the rider need not keep to the miry roads of that age.

was weak in body, ungainly and rough in his gestures and manners, slovenly in dress, shy from early and long seclusion, and so timid, that he shrank from the very sight of a naked sword. His only manly taste was a passion for hunting. Music, dancing, the gallant discourse and light graces of a court, were his aversion. With great capacity for work, when he chose to exert himself, he was naturally indolent, and given to waste his powers on trifles and his health in coarse and vicious pleasures. His high opinion of himself, and his appetite for flattery, made him the tool of favourites all his days.

James held the doctrine of the “divine right of kings”—a doctrine which had been unknown till lately to the free states of Europe, and least of all known to England. Through all his intrigues with France, James had kept firm to the Protestant faith; but he had been alienated from the Presbyterian Kirk by his conflicts with its ministers; and he hoped to extend his ecclesiastical supremacy from England over Scotland.

James had been married, in 1590, to the Princess ANNE of Denmark; and his family of two sons and a daughter seemed to secure a quiet continuance of the succession. The sons were HENRY, born in 1593, and CHARLES, born at Dunfermline, November 19, 1600. The daughter, ELIZABETH (born 1596), became, by her marriage with Frederick, the Elector Palatino * (1612), the ancestress of the House of Hanover and of Queen Victoria.

James spent thirty days on the journey from Holyrood to London, conferring an immense number of knighthoods on the gentlemen who met and entertained him. He was crowned at Westminster, with Queen Anne, on the 25th of June. Sir Robert Cecil was confirmed in the post of chief minister; † and he arrested Sir Walter Raleigh, with

* The title of *Elector* was borne by the seven German Princes by whom the Emperor was elected. The *Palatinate* lay on the Rhine: its name appears frequently in the history of this reign.

† He was made Earl of Salisbury in 1605.

the Lords Cobham and Grey, besides others, on a charge of treason. Two plots were said to have been discovered, the *Main* and the *Bye*, that is, the chief and secondary plots. The “*Bye*” was a conspiracy of Catholic priests, to seize the king’s person. The alleged object of the “*Main*” was to place the Lady ARABELLA STEWART on the throne, with aid from Spain.

This unhappy lady, who was now twenty-eight years old, was the first cousin of King James, being the daughter of Charles Stewart, Duke of Lennox, Darnley’s younger brother. She was brought up under the jealous eye of Elizabeth, and became the object of James’s implacable enmity. She died insane, after twelve years’ imprisonment in the Tower (1615). The alleged plot on her behalf is only interesting as bearing on the fate of Sir Walter Raleigh. After a trial, in which the great lawyer, SIR EDWARD COKE, as Attorney-General, disgraced himself by the rudest unfairness, Raleigh was found guilty. His execution was suspended; and he spent thirteen years in the Tower, calmly pursuing those studies, of which the fruit remains in his “History of the World.”

All parties looked anxiously for the king’s declaration of his policy in religion. The Catholics had still hopes of Mary Stewart’s son: the Puritans had received promises, made by James to smooth his way to the throne. Early in the new year, James himself presided over the “Hampton Court Conferences” between the Bishops and the most learned Puritan divines, with a view to a settlement of the points in dispute between them; and he showed the Puritans how thoroughly he disliked them (January, 1604). The one great fruit of this Conference was the “Authorized Version” of the Scriptures, which was completed in 1611. As for the Catholics, a proclamation ordered all Jesuits and seminary priests to quit the realm.

In March, 1604, James met his *First Parliament* with a declaration of his attachment to the Church of England, his opposition to the Puritans, and his doubts as to the loyalty of the Catholics. His title was confirmed, and

duties of tunnage and poundage were granted for his life.* The penal statutes against Catholics were renewed, and *witchcraft* was declared felony. This first session did not pass without a protest from the Commons against the claim of James to an authority above that of "women" (for so he dared *now* to glance at Elizabeth), and of "simple kings" (such, forsooth, as Alfred, the Henrys, and the Edwards!) In their "Apology made to the King touching their Privileges," the Commons declared that they held those privileges of *right*, and not of *grace*. The foreign policy of the new king, who took for his motto, "Blessed are the Peacemakers," was shown by his desertion of the Dutch, when he made peace with Spain and Austria (1604).

The decisive declarations of King and Parliament against the Catholics led a few fanatics to conspire the destruction of both in the famous GUNPOWDER PLOT. But this very plot gave indirectly the strongest proof of the loyalty of the English Catholics in general; and Parliament has of late well decided that there is "good reason" why gunpowder treason should cease to be remembered against citizens who have an equal stake in our common country. The disloyal fanatics were chiefly new converts to Popery. Such were Robert Catesby, the contriver of the plot, and one of his first associates, John Wright; the other, Thomas Winter, belonged to an old Catholic family. It was Catesby who contrived the plan for blowing up the King and Parliament in the very house where they made laws against his faith. In the confusion that must follow, he hoped for a rising of the Catholics, and for help from Spain and the refugees abroad. A daring agent was found in GUIDO or GUY FAWKES, a native of York, and a convert to Popery, who had been trained as a soldier in the cruel school of the Spanish army in the Netherlands. These four were joined by Thomas Percy, of the noble house of Northumberland; and the five sealed their oath of secrecy by taking the sacrament from the hands of Henry Garnett, the head

* Customs duties on every *tun* of wine, and every *pound* of goods, imported into England, had been granted as early as the reign of Edward III. These taxes become of great importance in the next reign.

of the Jesuits in England. Many others were afterwards taken into the plot; but increased numbers multiplied the chances of betrayal.

As early as May, 1604, the conspirators took a house next to the House of Lords at Westminster, intending to dig through the wall to the vaults beneath the place of meeting, and there to lay their powder. Some time later, they hired a coal-cellar directly under the House of Lords, brought in their barrels of powder, and covered them with faggots and coals, so as to look like a store of winter fuel. Fawkes visited the Netherlands, to gather a band of adventurers like himself; and warnings of his proceedings there were sent both by Spain and France to the government of England. But Cecil had a full knowledge of the plot from Francis Tresham, one of the conspirators; and the wily secretary resolved to give the king the credit of making the discovery by his own wit.

Parliament was to meet on the 5th of November, 1605. On the 26th of October, Lord Mounteagle, a Catholic peer, and brother-in-law of Tresham, received a mysterious warning to absent himself; for, said the letter, “i saye they shall receyve a terrible blow this parlement, & yet they shall not seie who hurts them.” When the letter was laid before the king, he declared that these words pointed to a “blowing up by powder;” and this wonderful discovery was compared by James and his flatterers to the Judgment of Solomon.

On Monday, the 4th of November, the vaults were searched; and there was “a very tall and desperate fellow” standing by a heap of coals and wood, which, he said, belonged to Mr. Percy. Slow matches and touchwood were found upon him, and a dark lantern was burning in the cellar. This man, who proved to be Guy Fawkes, was brought before the king, to whom he boldly avowed the purpose of killing him, as an excommunicated heretic. Fawkes refused to betray his accomplices, till a full confession was extracted from him by the rack.*

* The signature of Fawkes to his confessions, before and after torture, still bears clear evidence of the effect of the rack upon him.

On the arrest of Fawkes, the conspirators in London fled to their accomplices, who had gathered in arms under Sir Everard Digby in Warwickshire, with the design of seizing and proclaiming the Princess Elizabeth. They fled to Holbeach House, in Worcestershire; where Catesby, Percy, and the two Wrights, found the death they sought from the king's force. Tresham died in the Tower: the rest were tried and executed on the 30th and 31st of January, 1606. Garnett, who defended himself ably, on the ground that he only knew of the plot under the seal of confession, was executed in May. New penal laws were enacted against Catholics, both by the English and Scottish Parliaments; and the latter passed a law for restoring Episcopacy in the Kirk of Scotland.

The same year is memorable for the beginning of the English Colonies, which grew into the United States of North America. Colonists were sent to Raleigh's deserted settlement of VIRGINIA, and its capital, *James Town*, was founded in 1607. In 1610, a charter was granted for the colonization of *Newfoundland*. Ten years later, the first of the NEW ENGLAND Colonies was founded by a band of Independent Dissenters, who are reverenced by their children as the "Pilgrim Fathers." Having been driven to Holland by persecution, they hoped to be allowed to live in religious freedom under English law on the other side of the Atlantic. They embarked at Delft in two small vessels, the "Mayflower" and "Speedwell." After long and trying adventures, they founded the town of New Plymouth, on Massachusetts Bay, on Christmas Day (1620).

Meanwhile, on the nearer shore of the Atlantic, Ireland received a new body of Protestant English settlers. The forfeited estates of the late rebels, forming nearly the whole province of Ulster, were granted for the most part to the great trading Companies of London, who engaged to occupy them with Protestant settlers (1611). The name of *Londonderry* retains the memory of this colonization. On the plea of providing for the defence of the new settlements,

but really to bring in money by fees, James created the new titled order, called *Baronets*.

In 1609 a new charter was granted to the *East India Company*, which had been founded in 1600. In 1612 their first settlement was established at Surat; and in 1615 an English ambassador was sent to the court of the Great Mogul, or Emperor of India, at Agra.

Early in 1611, James dissolved his first Parliament, and another three years passed without one. Meanwhile the king lost his able minister Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury (May 24, 1612). His death removed all check on a pernicious favourite, ROBERT CARR, who had been the king's page in Scotland, and who was now created Earl of Somerset and Lord High Treasurer. In November of this year, the king's eldest son, HENRY, Prince of Wales, whose virtues had made him the hope of the nation and the enemy of Carr, died with a suspicious suddenness.

The court was a scene of debauchery and extravagance; and the constant want of money forced James to call his *Second Parliament* on the 5th of April, 1614. It replied to the king's demand for a supply, by asking for the redress of grievances; and was dissolved without passing a single Act. Hence it was nicknamed the *Addled Parliament* (June 7). James had recourse to a *Benevolence*,* and one gentleman, Oliver St. John, was fined 5000*l.* by the Star Chamber for refusing to pay the illegal demand.

James was relieved of one favourite just when he had set his affections on another. In 1616, Somerset and his Countess, the divorced wife of the Earl of Essex, were sentenced to death for having poisoned Sir Thomas Overbury, because he opposed their disgraceful marriage. The pardon and pension, which James granted to them, are supposed to have bought the concealment of a secret, which the king durst not have disclosed.

Somerset's successor in the king's favour was GEORGE VILLIERS, the handsome son of a knight of Leicestershire, who kept his power over his weak master by a strange

* The nature of this exaction has been explained on page 120.

mixture of courtly grace and insolent freedom. He was loaded with wealth and offices, and created in rapid succession Viscount Villiers, and Earl, Marquis, and Duke of BUCKINGHAM. He had the art to make himself agreeable at once to the pleasure-loving king, and to his grave son, CHARLES, who had been created Prince of Wales after his brother's death. About the same time, the Chief Justice, Sir Edward Coke, was disgraced for opposing the king's illegal acts, and the great philosopher, Sir FRANCIS BACON, was soon afterwards made Lord Chancellor.

James had now so completely changed the foreign policy of England, as to arrange a match between his son and a daughter of Philip III. of Spain. For the favour of the Catholic king he sacrificed the life of the last worthy of the age of Elizabeth. SIR WALTER RALEIGH had obtained his release, after thirteen years' imprisonment, to search for a gold mine in Guiana, James being tempted by the promise of a large share in the profit. But the king told the secret of the expedition to the Spanish ambassador, Gondomar, and Raleigh was foiled by a Spanish force. His death was demanded by Gondomar, and he was beheaded under his old sentence (October 28, 1618). Before laying his head on the block, he kissed the axe and said, “ ‘Tis a sharp medicine, but a sound cure for all diseases.”

Ready as James was to make such a sacrifice to Spain, he was just as ready to desert his own son-in-law and the Protestant cause in Europe. The Protestants of Bohemia, driven to revolt by persecution, chose the Elector Palatine, Frederick, for their king. This “winter king”—as he was derisively called from the one season that he spent in feasting and skating at his new capital—was driven out by the decisive *Battle of Prague* (November 8, 1620). The voice of Protestant England loudly demanded the defence of the Elector, to whose aid James had been forced to send the weak support of 4000 men. The king tried to silence the outcry by a proclamation, forbidding any of his subjects to talk of State matters, foreign

or domestic. But the voice of the nation found utterance in the *Third Parliament*, which want of money forced James to call, after an interval of seven years (January, 1621).

Their first attack was on the *Monopolies*, which enriched the creatures of the court by fraud and oppression, and which Elizabeth had consented to put down (see p. 168). One chief offender, Sir Giles Mompesson, was impeached, and the king sought favour with the Commons by banishing him for life. **LORD BACON**, as the chief responsible minister of the crown, was next impeached for the offence of taking bribes in his office as a judge. He made a full confession of twenty-two acts of corruption, and he was sentenced to perpetual degradation from office, banishment from court, imprisonment, and an enormous fine, which the king remitted. In that age, corruption on the judgment seat was all but universal; and Lord Bacon's own judgment on the sentence is the strongest proof of how much such an example was needed :—"I was the justest judge that was in England these fifty years, but it was the justest censure in Parliament that was there these two hundred years." Lord Bacon's fall gave him leisure for those great works in philosophy, which have made his name immortal.

Parliament was adjourned on June 20, after the Commons had resolved unanimously to spend their lives and fortunes in defence of their religion and the Palatinate. They reassembled on the 20th of November, in a state of indignation at the cruel devastation of the Palatinate by the Imperialists and Spaniards, as well as at the imprisonment of one of their members during the recess. On the motion of Sir Edward Coke, the Commons adopted a "Petition and Remonstrance against the growth of Popery;" and they prayed for war against Spain in defence of the Palatinate, and for the marriage of the Prince of Wales to a Protestant princess.

James was the more incensed at all this, as he had already concluded a secret treaty for the Spanish marriage and the toleration of Popery. Before the petition was presented, he wrote to the Speaker, forbidding the House

to presume to meddle with any matter which concerned his government or the mysteries of State! The House respectfully claimed liberty of speech as "*their ancient and undoubted right*," and the king replied "that their privileges were derived from *the grace and permission of his ancestors and himself*." Upon this the House placed on record their famous PROTESTATION—"That the liberties, franchises, privileges and jurisdictions of Parliament are *the ancient and undoubted birthright of the subjects of England*" (December 18, 1621).

Next day the king sent for the journals of the House, and tore out the resolution with his own hand, and prorogued the Parliament, which was soon afterwards dissolved (February, 1622). The chief leaders of the Commons,—Coke, John Pym, and others,—were imprisoned; and the Earl of Oxford was sent to the Tower on the charge of speaking against the king. From this time may be dated an opposition to the Crown in the Upper House, as well as in the Lower. James raised money by a benevolence; and he showed off his own little wit by declaring that he would govern "according to the good of the *common-weal*, but not according to the *common will*." His desertion of his daughter and son-in-law was crowned by a disgrace in war, when the little force sent to their aid surrendered at Mannheim (November, 1622).

Philip IV. of Spain (who had succeeded his father in 1621) had amused James with promises of the Elector's restoration, while he delayed the marriage treaty, in order to obtain further and further concessions for the Catholic cause in England. All seemed at last arranged, when Charles conceived the project of a journey to Spain with Buckingham, to see his bride. Travelling as *John and Thomas Smith*, they arrived at Madrid "to the wonderment of all the world," in March, 1623. But, in passing through Paris, the Prince had been smitten with the charms of HENRIETTA MARIA, sister of King Louis XIII. and daughter of Henry IV. Buckingham's levity and insolence outraged the grave court of Spain. The marriage was

broken off; and Buckingham advised the king to call a new Parliament while the public satisfaction was at its height.

This, the *Fourth* and last Parliament of James, readily voted 300,000*l.* for the war with Spain, which was declared on the 10th of March, 1624. The Earl of Middlesex, Lord Treasurer, was impeached for bribery, and sentenced to a fine of 50,000*l.*; and an Act was passed, declaring monopolies illegal. But when the Commons proceeded to attack one of the king's chaplains, Dr. Richard Montagu, for certain doctrines put forth in a sermon, the Parliament was suddenly prorogued (May 29); nor did they meet again. James was left to conduct with disgrace the war that had been forced on him. His unpopularity was crowned by a marriage treaty with France, which yielded more to the Catholics than had been granted to Spain.

The warm affection, which was one of the best points of James's character, was wounded by contemptuous treatment from his son as well as his favourite. After warning them (it is said) of the coming storm, which his own headstrong conceit had brewed, he died of ague at his hunting-seat of Theobalds, near Cheshunt, on the 27th of March, 1625. He was buried with the two queens whom he had succeeded, his mother and Elizabeth, in Henry VII.'s chapel at Westminster, but no monument was raised there to his memory. His own conceit had pronounced him the "British Solomon"; but the wit of the great Duke of Sully had prepared for James a fitter epitaph—"The most learned fool in Christendom."

Besides the great movements of colonization and foreign intercourse, much of the intellectual fruit of the Elizabethan age was reaped under the first Stewart. Shakspere, dying in 1616, was succeeded by a band of dramatists, of whom "Rare Ben Jonson" was the chief; and John Milton was born eight years before Shakspere died (1608). Besides the great glory of FRANCIS BACON, other writers of the highest merit advanced the studies of law, theology, and politics. The intercourse with Italy, which had

deeply affected the Tudor age, from Henry to Elizabeth, had now a more decided influence on literature and art. Italian architecture was naturalized by INIGO JONES, of whose grand design for the new palace of Whitehall the Banqueting-House alone was executed. We owe to a wealthy merchant, SIR HUGH MYDDELTON, supported by James himself, the first attempt towards the supply of London with plenty of pure water, by the "New River."

CHAP. XXVII.—CHARLES I. STEWART.

FROM MARCH 27, 1625, TO JANUARY 30, 1649.

Born, Nov. 19, 1600. *Reigned*, 24 years. *Age*, 48.

A GREAT change for the better came over the profligate English court at the accession of Charles I. The young king was grave even to melancholy; and it is said that an Italian sculptor started at seeing the forecast of his misfortunes in his portrait. Charles had learnt too well his father's high notions of prerogative, and he deemed their enforcement both a right and duty. He came to the throne under the evil influence of Buckingham; and the profligate favourite was succeeded by advisers, who were more dangerous because they were more earnest. Offence was given to the people by the king's first step, that of marrying the Princess Henrietta Maria. The queen was conducted to England by Buckingham, with a train of Roman Catholic attendants and priests, whom Charles afterwards found it necessary to dismiss.

The *First Parliament* of Charles resolved to begin the new reign by an enquiry into old abuses. With this view, they granted the duties of *tunnage* and *poundage* for a year only, instead of for the king's life as in former reigns. They were exasperated against Buckingham, both by the ill-success of the war with Spain, and by the discovery that English ships had been lent to France to act against

the Huguenots, as the French Protestants were called. This Parliament was dissolved within two months; and the king began at once to raise a loan by his own authority.

In the elections for another Parliament, pains were taken to exclude the chief popular leaders. This *Second Parliament* met on the 6th of February, 1626. The Commons again refused to grant supplies, till grievances should be redressed; and they preferred articles of impeachment against Buckingham. Charles sent the managers of the impeachment to the Tower; but he was forced to set them free, as the House refused to do any business. New proceedings against Buckingham were again cut short by a dissolution (June 15).

The king proceeded to raise a *general loan*; and he ordered the duties of tunnage and poundage to be levied. Ships were demanded from the chief sea-ports; and men were pressed for seamen and soldiers. Martial law was proclaimed, on the pretext of keeping these recruits in order. Several gentlemen were imprisoned, and others were sent to serve in the fleet, for refusing to contribute to the loan; and subservient judges declared the king's authority sufficient to justify these acts.

The fleet sent to sea by these means incurred disgrace in the war with Spain; and a new war was suddenly proclaimed against France in the behalf of the Huguenots. This change of policy was ascribed to personal motives on the part of Buckingham, who led a fleet and army to the relief of La Rochelle, the last stronghold of the Huguenots, which was then besieged by Cardinal Richelieu. The Duke landed at the Isle of Rhé, on the French coast; but, after losing two-thirds of his men, he returned home in disgrace (1627).

The expenses of these wars forced the king to call a *Third Parliament* (March 17, 1628). The members returned to the House of Commons were distinguished for rank, wealth, and learning; and among them were several who had been imprisoned for refusing to contribute to the

general loan. Now also the Lords concurred fully in the great and decisive measures, which the Commons proposed, for the redress of grievances. The two Houses joined in the ever memorable PETITION OF RIGHT, to which the king gave his reluctant assent (June 7, 1628).

This “Second Great Charter of Liberties of the English People” (as it has well been called) enumerated the grievances of forced loans and taxes imposed without consent of Parliament; of arbitrary imprisonments; of the oppressive billeting of soldiers; and of martial law. For all these redress was prayed, not as a new claim or favour, but as an ancient *right*, “according to the laws and statutes of this realm.” The king caused the Petition to be published, not with the full assent which he had given by the words “Let right be done as is desired,” but with the evasive answer by which he had first attempted to satisfy the Houses. “As for tunnage and poundage”—said Charles in proroguing the Parliament—“it is a thing I cannot want, and was never intended by you to ask, and never meant by me to grant” (June 26).

This prorogation stopped the proceedings against Buckingham for the third time; and the Duke went to Portsmouth, to take command of another expedition for the aid of La Rochelle. On the morning of the 23rd of August, Buckingham was passing through the hall of his house to his carriage, when a man stabbed him in the breast, and left the knife sticking in the wound. Thus closed, at the early age of thirty-six, the haughty favourite’s career of pleasure and ambition. The assassin proved to be John Felton, who had served as a lieutenant under Buckingham, but had retired from the army in resentment at seeing other officers promoted over his head. His moody temper had mixed up his private wrongs with the outcry against the Duke as a public enemy; and he gloried in having travelled seventy miles to save his country. On his trial, Felton pleaded guilty, and he died confessing his delusion.

Far more memorable than the deed itself, is the decision of the judges that the rack, to which Charles wished

Felton to be put, was not allowed by the law of England. The horrid practice of torture had only been introduced under the Tudors and Stewarts. Meanwhile the Protestant cause in France had fallen with the surrender of La Rochelle (October 28).

The knife of Felton had perhaps saved Buckingham from the scaffold, to which his successor in the king's councils now took the first step. SIR THOMAS WENTWORTH, as member for Yorkshire in several Parliaments, both of James and Charles, was one of the most eloquent leaders of the country party. But his ambitious nature aspired to fill the place left open by Buckingham's fall, and he accepted the offer of a peerage. In December, 1628, he was created Baron, and, soon afterwards, Viscount Wentworth; but he is best known by the title which he bore only in the last year of his life, as EARL OF STRAFFORD. In that same year his old friend and comrade Pym fulfilled the grim warning which he now gave to the deserter—“Though you *leave us* now, I will never *leave you*, while *your head is on your shoulders*.”

This haughty peer shared the councils and the fate of his master with a prelate, who seemed made to be the instrument of despotism in the Church, like Strafford in the State. WILLIAM LAUD, the son of a Berkshire clothier, was born at Reading in 1573. While still only a student at Oxford, he was conspicuous for his opposition to the Puritans. Having aided James in the restoration of Episcopacy in Scotland, Laud was made a Bishop; and he was translated to the see of London in the month after the prorogation of Parliament (July, 1628). He held much of the power of the primacy, as Abbott, the Puritan Archbishop of Canterbury, had been suspended from his functions for the accidental killing of a parkkeeper, in shooting at a buck (1621). The one idea of Laud's whole life was a simple but narrow-minded devotion to what he deemed the interests of the Church; and he plainly avowed that the law was not to him the limit of “what may be done for honour and religion sake.”

The elevation of Laud gave offence to the Parliament, which had already begun a struggle with the High-church party. The Commons refused the supplies, till they had discussed religious grievances. After fierce debates, in which OLIVER CROMWELL took part for the first time, they passed a resolution declaring that all who should bring in Popery or Arminianism,* or who should advise the taking of tunnage and poundage not granted by Parliament, or who should pay the same, should be accounted *enemies to the kingdom*. The Speaker, who refused to put the question, was held down in the chair, while the resolution was passed; the doors being locked against the usher, who waited to summon the House to the king's presence, for Parliament to be prorogued. When both houses were assembled, Charles told them that the dismissal of this Parliament was caused by the seditious carriage of some vipers, members of the lower house (March 2, 1629).

The dissolution of Parliament was followed by a proclamation, which showed the king's intention to govern without Parliaments for the future. Several leaders of the Commons were committed to the Tower; and, after proceedings in the law-courts which outraged all justice, Sir John Eliot and two others were sentenced to heavy fines and to imprisonment during the king's pleasure. Eliot died in the Tower (1632).

The dismissal of this third Parliament closed the *First Period* of Charles's reign, in which, for four years, he attempted to govern through the forms of the constitution. The *Second Period*, of eleven years, presented a scene unexampled in the history of England. The attempts of Edward II. and Richard II. were but a feeble image of the despotic power usurped by Charles, and expressed by Wentworth's watchword, *Thorough*. Wentworth was placed at the head of the "Council of the North," which had been created by Henry VIII.; and his enormous

* This was the form of doctrine adopted by the King, and by most of the High-church party. It was opposed to the "Calvinism" of the Puritans. The doctrines were named from their chief teachers, CALVIN, the great French Reformer, and ARMINIUS, a Dutch divine.

power in that office enabled him to prepare a force for crushing resistance in the South. He was in constant correspondence with Laud, who remained in London to punish all utterance of free opinion as libel and sedition, as well as to deal with Puritans and Dissenters.

The taxes condemned by Parliament were levied ; and peace was made with France and Spain (1630). A small body of the king's advisers sat as judges, under various names, in the Council, the Star Chamber, and the Court of High Commission. Their illegal power was exercised in those "cruel and excessive punishments" which the Great Charter had emphatically condemned. Divines and barristers were sentenced, for real or alleged libels on the Court, to merciless whippings, branding, cropping of ears, slitting of noses, and exposure in the pillory, besides enormous fines and lifelong imprisonment. Puritans were thrown into gaol for nonconformity, and pilloried for the "seditious writings" in which they defended their opinions. The appeals made to the ordinary courts were rejected by judges, who ruled that the laws themselves were subject to the king's authority.

The citizens of London were among the most resolute opponents of this arbitrary government ; and they were made to feel its weight. In 1633 the Star Chamber fined the City 50,000*l.*, and the plantation of Ulster was taken into the king's hands for alleged neglect in its management. This step was followed by the appointment of Wentworth as Lord Deputy in Ireland. Invested with despotic authority, he drove out the Scotch Presbyterians who had settled in Ulster, and prepared a force which might be ready to help the king against his English subjects. Laud, too, was raised to the Primacy. This year Charles visited his native country, and was crowned as King of Scotland (June 18).

In England, new offence was given to the Puritans by the re-issue of the "Book of Sports," which James had put forth in 1618, but had withdrawn through the resistance of Archbishop Abbott. It was a description of

the sports, in which all good subjects were not only permitted, but enjoined, to indulge on Sundays after divine service. The clergy were commanded to read it from their pulpits, and some lost their livings for disobedience.

While intent on coercing his subjects at home, Charles took no care for England's influence abroad, and suffered the navy to go to decay. The coasts of the British Isles were infested by pirates, and the Dutch intruded on the English fisheries. This state of things formed the pretext for the exaction of *Ship-Money*, at first from the maritime districts, but afterwards from all England (1636). Among those who resisted the payment was JOHN HAMPDEN, a gentleman of Buckinghamshire, and cousin to Oliver Cromwell. The delinquents were sued in the Court of Exchequer, and ten out of the twelve judges decided that the king might levy the tax to protect the country against danger, of which they declared him to be the sole judge (June 12, 1637). This was at once to revive the Danegeld (see p. 28), to annul the Charter, and to rob the English people of their proudest privilege, the defence of their own country.

While the case was still pending, a proclamation was issued against emigration to America, where many were preparing to seek the freedom of which they despaired at home. Among these, John Hampden and Oliver Cromwell were stopped, after they had actually embarked. How might the story of England have been changed if they had been left to depart! Another measure of this memorable year was a decree of the Star Chamber for the regulation of printing and type-founding, which imposed rigorous restrictions on the press, with the usual penalties of whipping, pillory, and imprisonment.

The open resistance, from which English loyalty had so long abstained, broke out in the same month in Scotland, against an attack on the worship of the Kirk. A Liturgy, prepared under Laud's direction, was appointed to be read for the first time on Sunday, July 23, in the High Church

of St. Giles, at Edinburgh. The church was crowded, chiefly with women, who cried out that “the Mass was entered,” that “Baal was in the church.” When the Dean, in his surplice, began to read the service, his voice was drowned in groans and hisses. One zealous woman, Janet Geddes, flung her stool at his head; a shower of stools and clasp-bibles followed. The chief rioters were driven out, and the tumult was somewhat appeased; but the church windows were broken by showers of stones from the mob outside; and in the evening the Bishop of Edinburgh narrowly escaped being beaten to death.

The spirit of resistance spread through Scotland like wildfire; and the Government forbade meetings for petitioning. Upon this, a sort of provisional government was formed, composed of four “Tables,” namely, the Nobility, the Gentry, the Ministers, and the Burgesses. Their purposes were embodied in the famous COVENANT (March 1, 1638), which all classes flocked eagerly to sign. It bound them to renounce Popery, and to stand by each other against all innovations in religion. In spite of the concessions which Charles made too late, the Tables convened a General Assembly at Glasgow, which abolished Episcopacy and the Court of High Commission, as well as the new Liturgy and Canons. The contest resulted in the strange spectacle of a *War between England and Scotland*, while both were under the same crown.

Early in 1639, Charles joined his army at York, and marched to Berwick. Hostilities were suspended when the king consented to call a Scottish Parliament and a General Assembly of the Kirk. Those bodies met in August, but only to confirm the abolition of Episcopacy, and to impose new restrictions on the king’s power; and they sat on in defiance of a prorogation. Charles prepared for a new campaign; but he could no longer avoid an appeal to the English people. Wentworth, who now returned from Ireland, and was created EARL OF STRAFFORD (January, 1640), joined with Laud in advising the calling of a Parliament.

This *Fourth Parliament* of Charles met on the 3rd of April, after an interval of eleven years without one. As in the former Parliaments, the Commons demanded the redress of grievances, before granting supplies; and the king answered by a dissolution (May 5). But this “Short Parliament” was only the forerunner of the “Long” one. The popular temper was shown by an attack on Laud’s palace at Lambeth; and one of the rioters was executed for *treason*.

In August, the Scottish army of 25,000 men crossed the Tweed, defeated an English force, and took possession of Newcastle. The king summoned his Peers to meet him at York, and announced his intention of calling a Parliament. A treaty was made at Ripon with the Scots, who were to remain in England, receiving a weekly sum of 5,600*l.*, while their grievances were discussed by Commissioners at London (October 26).

Even before this treaty was concluded, the signal of the coming revolution had been sounded in London. On the 22nd of October, the Court of High Commission was sitting at St. Paul’s, when a mob broke into their chamber and tore up the benches, crying, “No Bishop! No High Commission!” The Court never met again. This tumult was but a sign of the triumphant excitement, amidst which all the great leaders of the country party had been returned at the new elections. The very act of calling another Parliament was justly regarded as a surrender of the arbitrary power which had been maintained for eleven years. But that surrender was not made without a last struggle.

Tuesday, the 3rd of November, 1640, is a day memorable in British history for the meeting of the *Fifth Parliament* of Charles I., called the LONG PARLIAMENT, from its unexampled duration of twenty years. This Parliament, or rather the House of Commons, which soon obtained all the power, formed the real government of England for twelve years and a half, till it was driven out by Cromwell in 1653. But the remnant of its members re-assembled

in 1659 ; and it was only finally dissolved in 1660. Its first act was to choose a barrister named William Lenthal as Speaker, in opposition to the king's candidate. The first week was spent in receiving petitions, which complained of public and private grievances. The victims of the Star Chamber were released and compensated, and a committee was appointed to collect evidence against their oppressors.

No time was lost in opening the attack on the two chief ministers of Charles. The EARL OF STRAFFORD, well knowing the men into whose hands he was about to fall, had wished to withdraw to Ireland. He came to London, relying on the king's plighted word, that "not a hair of his head should be touched by the Parliament" (November 9). Two days later, John Pym moved the impeachment of his old comrade for treason. The Commons unanimously passed the articles, which a crowd of members carried to the Upper House.* Strafford, who had hastened to the house from the king's presence, was ordered into custody, and was afterwards sent to the Tower (November 25). ARCHBISHOP LAUD was attacked in a petition from the Scots as "the great incendiary" ; and the acts which he

* For this, and many other passages of our history, it is necessary to understand the words IMPEACHMENT and ATTAINER.

1. An *Impeachment* is a charge laid against a person before the House of Lords as the highest Court of Justice. The charge is generally for a great political crime, such as treason, corruption in office, or misgovernment. In most cases a person is impeached by the House of Commons, which appoints "managers" to plead the case before the Lords. If the accused is found guilty, the Lords pass sentence, which is executed, like the sentences of other courts, by the warrant of the Crown, subject to the royal prerogative of mercy.

2. An *Act of Attainder* against a person for treason is passed by the Houses of Lords and Commons, and assented to by the King, like any other Act of Parliament. Its effect is to subject the person to the penalties of treason, and also to "attaint his blood," by which he and his family are deprived of all his honours.

3. The great practical difference is that the Lords give judgment on an impeachment ; but a Bill of Attainder may be passed by the House of Commons as a popular measure, which the Lords and the Crown then find themselves unable to resist. Thus the Lords, who would probably have acquitted Strafford on his impeachment, passed the Bill for his attainder, and the King was forced to give his assent.

had carried in Convocation were voided illegal. On the 18th of December, he was charged with treason at the bar of the Lords, who ordered him into custody; and he also was afterwards committed to the Tower.

Meanwhile both Houses voted the levy of ship-money to be illegal; and those who had taken part in raising it, and other taxes, were proceeded against as "delinquents." So were those who had shared in the acts of the Star-Chamber and High Commission. Clergymen who had been deprived for nonconformity were restored to their livings. Other clergymen were called to the bar of the house for reprimand or punishment as "scandalous ministers," alike for what was called their superstition in the use of ceremonies, as for open immorality.

Early in 1641, the Commons sent out commissions to remove and destroy "all images, altars, crucifixes, superstitious pictures, monuments, and relics of idolatry, out of all churches or chapels." Many a rich stained window, many a precious monument of Gothic architecture and sculpture, perished under this order; and, among the rest, London lost the three "crosses" at Chepe, Paul's, and Charing.

A statute of the first importance was passed, to restore the old rule of the frequent summoning of Parliaments. This *Triennial Act* made strict provisions for the meeting of a Parliament *every three years at least*; and forbade the prorogation or dissolution of a new Parliament within fifty days after their meeting, without their own consent (February, 1641).

The trial of Strafford before his Peers began on the 28th of March. Westminster Hall was prepared for the ceremony with great state. The throne was empty; in front of it Lord Arundel sat on the woolsack* as High Steward, and the Peers were ranged on either side of him on raised benches. The Commons, as accusers, occupied another stage of raised seats. The King and Queen watched the whole trial from a closed gallery. In the

* This is a seat like a large woolpack, stuffed with wool and covered with red cloth, on which the Lord Chancellor sits as Speaker of the Lords.

midst of the Hall stood the stately form of Strafford, suffering from illness, but bearing himself with undaunted pride. The charges against him were summed up in the resolution of the Commons, "that the Earl of Strafford has endeavoured to subvert the ancient and fundamental laws of the realm, and to introduce tyrannical and arbitrary government."

Of this there was abundant proof; but English justice condemns no man for wrong-doing, unless he is proved to have broken some definite law. Strafford was arraigned for *High Treason*, a crime against the king's person and royal dignity, clearly defined by the Statute of Edward III. Strafford had acted against the laws, and against the liberties of the people, but it was on the king's behalf. How could deeds done in the king's service, and in obedience to his wish, have been acts against his person and authority? To this Pym answered, that the king was the head of the State, the ruin of which must bring about his fall; and there could be no greater treason than to subvert the constitution.

Strafford defended himself with wonderful eloquence, mingling the most powerful arguments with appeals to pity, by which even his enemies were moved. The Peers, who had first treated him harshly, showed a strong leaning in his favour. Even before the Earl had concluded his defence, the managers had given up the hope of his conviction, and resolved on another plan.

On the 10th of April, Pym brought in a *Bill of Attainder*, which passed the Commons on the 21st, against a small but powerful minority, of whom John Hampden was one. The king's attempt to forbid the Lords to pass the Bill only strengthened the pressure to which they were subjected by the people. Of 80 peers who had attended the trial, only 45 appeared in their places, when 26 voices against 19 declared two out of the 28 articles of impeachment proved (April 29). The judges were called upon to say whether these articles amounted to treason. They replied that, according to the case proposed to them,

Lord Strafford deserved to undergo the pains and forfeitures of high treason by law.

On Saturday, May 8, a deputation of both houses went to Whitehall to demand the execution of the sentence. Strafford had sent a most touching letter to the master whom he had served too well, protesting his innocence, but offering his life as a sacrifice to reconcile king and people. "My consent," said he, "shall more acquit you herein to God, than all the world can do besides." The king's councillors urged the dangers to himself and the public peace, if he refused. At length Charles yielded with tears, quieting his conscience with the hope of averting by entreaty the act to which he formally consented. The assent, which he gave to the Bill by commission, was followed by a Letter to the Lords, pleading for the Earl's life and proposing his perpetual imprisonment. But even the request in the postscript—"If he 'nust die, it were charity to reprieve him till Saturday'"—was rejected, and Strafford was led to the scaffold on Tower Hill next morning. Passing under the window of Laud's prison, he asked his blessing; but the old man fell senseless on the floor, and it was the Earl that blessed the Archbishop—"God protect your innocency."* The calm courage of Strafford's death scarcely repressed the joy that burst out after his execution (May 12, 1641).

The fall of Strafford was the very turning-point of the Revolution, and the decisive trial of strength between the King and the Commons. Reconciliation was made hopeless by the bloody sacrifice, for which Charles could neither forgive his people nor himself. Through the same commission, which gave his assent to the Earl's attainder, the king had sanctioned a Bill forbidding the dissolution of the present Parliament without its own consent. The Parliament now granted duties of tunnage and poundage, but only from May 25 to July 15. They voted 300,000*l.* to the Scots, and imposed a poll-tax for the cost of dis-

* Archbishop Laud remained in the Tower till he was attainted by Parliament (December 1644), and beheaded (January 10, 1645).

banding both armies, which was effected in August. They abolished the Courts of the Star Chamber and the High Commission. They imprisoned five of the judges who had sanctioned ship-money ; and they took other proceedings against agents of the late tyranny.

While England was thus pacified for the time, the policy of Strafford bore terrible fruit in Ireland. His fall at once dashed the hopes of the native Catholics, and removed the iron hand that had kept down rebellion. A gentleman of Kildare, named Roger More (whose estates had been almost swallowed up by the English colonists), with Sir Phelim O'Neil and other Irish chieftains, planned a rising throughout Ulster on an appointed day (October 23, 1641). The province was ravaged, the towns were taken, and the Protestant settlers were either massacred or driven to Dublin, bringing famine and pestilence into the crowded city. The number who perished was estimated at 40,000 or 50,000, and by some as high as 200,000.

This news, arriving soon after Parliament had met again in October, caused fresh exasperation. The Commons drew up a REMONSTRANCE, recounting, in no less than 206 articles, all the grievances of Charles's reign, and ascribing them to a Popish party in the king's councils. It was carried by the small majority of eleven, and was not even submitted to the Lords, who were now beginning to recoil from the violence of the Lower House. The Remonstrance was presented to the King at Hampton Court, and was circulated throughout the country.

A reply was published from the pen of a popular leader, who had now gone over to the court. This was EDWARD HYDE, who became under the Restoration Earl of Clarendon and Lord Chancellor, and wrote the story of these times in his famous "History of the Great Rebellion." Another opponent of the Remonstrance in the Commons was Lucius Cary, VISCOUNT FALKLAND, whose pure devotion to the popular cause now yielded to an equally pure loyalty and love of peace. On both sides in turn he was the constant advocate of moderate counsels ; and his cry was ever

“Peace! Peace!” He found it for himself on the field of Newbury, at the early age of thirty-three (1643).

The spirit, against which Falkland was ever remonstrating among the royalists; broke out at the Christmas of this year. A band of gentlemen, most of them young and gay, volunteered to form a body-guard for the king at Whitehall, under the command of Colonel Lunsford, a notorious profligate. They assumed the name of CAVALIERS, the equivalent for our word *Knight* in the language of Italy, but used in that country to denote a gentleman of birth, honour, and fashion. Their riotous demeanour brought them into conflict with the citizens, and especially with the apprentices of London, who were ever ready for a brawl. The Cavaliers gave these plebeian opponents the contemptuous name of ROUNDHEADS, from the cropped hair which formed a strong contrast to the flowing curls, and the long “love-locks,” which were then the height of fashion. The idle party names of Cavalier and Round-head soon obtained as terrible a sense as the Red and White Roses of the earlier Civil War.

The rioters on the popular side molested the Bishops to such a degree, that they were afraid to attend Parliament. Twelve Bishops published a protest against all acts done during their enforced absence; and for this they were impeached by the Commons, and committed to the Tower (December 30). Next day the king refused the request of the Commons for a guard under the command of the Earl of Essex, the chief military peer of the popular party.*

Thus ended this eventful year amidst the beginnings of the appeal to force. The new year, 1642, began on Saturday, and on Monday the king’s government threw down the challenge by impeaching a Peer, and five leaders of the Commons, of treason. The peer was Lord Kimbolton;† the commoners were Hampden, Pym, Hazelrigge, Holles,

* Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, was the son of Elizabeth’s unhappy favourite, who had been closely connected with the Puritans.

† Edward Montagu, afterwards EARL OF MANCHESTER, and a general of the Parliamentary army.

and Strode. As the accused were not at once ordered into custody, Charles went in person to the House of Commons next day, and demanded the surrender of the five members. His purpose had been betrayed, and the House had ordered the five members to absent themselves. Charles, seeing, as he said, that "his birds had flown," retired, followed by loud cries of "Privilege! Privilege" (January 4). The more ominous cry, "To your tents, O Israel"—the ancient signal of Israel's rebellion against the son of Solomon—broke the sullen silence amidst which Charles went next day to the City, where the five members had taken refuge. Not to dwell on the details of the contest, Charles retired, completely foiled, to Hampton Court (January 10), never to return to Whitehall till seven years later, for his execution. Next day, the five members were brought back in procession to the House ; and as the crowd passed Whitehall, they cried, "Where now are the king and his cavaliers?"

The question was partly answered on the following day by the appearance of an armed band at Kingston, under Lord Digby and Colonel Lunsford, to escort the king to Windsor. They were declared traitors by Parliament. Digby escaped to the Continent ; but Lunsford was seized and sent to the Tower. On the same day, the Commons passed a vote to secure possession of the Tower, and of the great ports and arsenals of Portsmouth, in the south, and Kingston-upon-Hull, in the north. Portsmouth was taken from Colonel Goring by the Earl of Essex, and Sir John Hotham held Hull for the Parliament.

On the 20th of January, the king sent a message to Parliament, asking for a statement of their complaints, which he promised to consider. They desired first, "as a sure ground of safety and confidence," that they should nominate the commanders of the Militia. England had then no standing army, and this demand meant nothing less than to take the armed force of the country out of the king's hands. Charles refused, and Parliament proceeded to raise men and money for suppressing the Irish rebellion ; but most of these resources were retained for use at home.

The king, on his part, sent over the queen to Holland ; and the crown jewels, which she took with her, were used for the purchase of arms and stores (February). Charles retired towards the North, where his chief strength lay. At Newmarket he held an angry conference with the commissioners of both Houses, and finally refused to give up the command of the Militia (March 19). On his marching to Hull, where large quantities of arms and stores were laid up, he was refused admission by Sir John Hotham. This was the first act of armed resistance to the royal authority (April 23). Both sides now issued orders for gathering force, and denounced those who obeyed the other as traitors. At length the king led his army southwards, and set up his standard on the Castle Hill at Nottingham. By this act he gave the signal for the CIVIL WAR (August 22, 1642).

The Parliament put forth a declaration of the causes of the war ; and the Earl of Essex proceeded to take command of the army collected at Northampton, which numbered 15,000 men. The infantry consisted of the burghers of the chief towns, amongst whom the train bands of London were conspicuous for their courage and discipline. The nobility and gentry were for the most part on the king's side ; but those who adhered to the Parliament raised a small but effective force of cavalry. Among these, OLIVER CROMWELL began his military career, as captain of a body of horse gathered by himself from (as he said) " such men as had the fear of God before them, as made some conscience of what they did." The spirit of religious enthusiasm pervaded the Parliamentary ranks ; while the other side exulted in their loyalty to Church and King.

Charles gathered an army of 10,000 men at Shrewsbury. His chief strength lay in his horse, composed of fiery cavaliers, and their tenants and servants, under his nephew PRINCE RUPERT.* Marching from Shrewsbury to-

* Prince Rupert and his brother Maurice, who also fought on the side of Charles, were the sons of the Elector Palatine and Elizabeth, the daughter of James I.

wards London, Charles encountered the Earl of Essex at *Edgehill*, in Warwickshire, on Sunday, the 23rd of October, 1642. This *first pitched battle of the war* was bloody but indecisive; and the king, after advancing nearly to London, fixed his head-quarters at Oxford.

During the next year, 1643, the war went on in the South, and in Yorkshire, with various fortunes. The skirmish of *Chalgrove* in Oxfordshire (June 18) is memorable for the fall of John Hampden; and the *First Battle of Newbury* for the death of Lord Falkland (September 20).

The Parliament made an alliance with the Scotch Presbyterians, whose “Covenant” they adopted (with some alterations) under the name of the *Solemn League and Covenant* (September 25). It bound both nations to maintain the reformed Church of Scotland, and to reform that of England and Ireland; and to preserve the liberties of Parliament and the king’s person and authority. Measures for reforming the Church of England, on a Presbyterian and Calvinistic model, were framed by the *Assembly of Divines* at Westminster.

Early in the new year, the Scottish army of 40,000 men entered England under the veteran Lesley, Earl of Leven (January 19, 1644). On the other hand, the Marquis of Ormond (Strafford’s successor in Ireland), having made a truce with the Irish rebels, sent a force of Irish to the aid of Charles. The Irish were routed at Nantwich by Sir Thomas Fairfax, son of the Parliamentary general, Lord Fairfax (January 25);* and the united English and Scotch armies laid siege to York. The advance of Prince Rupert to the relief of the city brought on the great battle of MARSTON MOOR, which was decided by Cromwell and his “Ironsides” (July 2). Its result was the surrender of York, and the complete victory of the Parliament in the North.

* The two Fairfaxes must be distinguished.—Ferdinand, Lord Fairfax, was less successful as a general than his son, and was displaced by the “Self-denying Ordinance” in 1645. Sir Thomas Fairfax, who then became general-in-chief, succeeded to the title of Lord Fairfax on his father’s death in 1647.

In the South, the army of Essex was cut off by the king in Cornwall, and his infantry, under Skippon, were forced to surrender; but the Earl of Manchester defeated Charles in the *Second Battle of Newbury* (October 27).

In Scotland, the royal standard was raised by James Grahame, EARL OF MONTROSE, who, with the aid of 1500 Irish, gained the battle of *Tippermuir*, near Perth, over Lord Elcho (September 1). Early in the following year, he defeated Archibald Campbell, Marquis of Argyle, at Inverlochy. Montrose was soon obliged to retire into the Highlands; but his assurances of support encouraged Charles to break off the negotiations for peace, which were carried on for some time at Oxford (February, 1645).

Fresh vigour was thrown into the renewed war by the triumph of the extreme party in Parliament, whose leaders were Independents in religion, and Republicans in politics. The indecisive progress of the war had cast discredit on the old generals, when Oliver Cromwell proposed the "Self-denying Ordinance," by which members of both Houses were excluded from military command (December, 1644). It was adopted by the Lords; and Lords Essex, Manchester, and Fairfax laid down their commissions. Sir Thomas Fairfax now became general-in-chief; and, at his desire, Cromwell was appointed lieutenant-general and commander of the horse, notwithstanding the Self-denying Ordinance. The new life thus infused into the army bore fruit in the decisive *BATTLE OF NASEBY*, in Leicestershire, where the cause of Charles was ruined (June 14, 1645). His hopes from Scotland were dashed by the defeat of Montrose by Lesley at *Philiphaugh* (September 13).

Charles, who had thrown himself into Oxford, tried to come to an agreement with the Parliament; but they refused to treat with him. His last hope was now in the loyalty of his Scottish countrymen to the house of Stewart. On the approach of Fairfax, to lay siege to Oxford, Charles escaped in disguise during the night of April 26, 1646. Having failed to procure a ship on

the coast of Norfolk, he repaired to the head-quarters of the Scots near Newark. Though received by them with respect, he found himself a prisoner in their hands. The Scots retired to Newcastle, and held long and angry discussions with the English Parliament. At last they agreed to return home on receiving 400,000*l.*, and to surrender the king's person to the Parliament. On January 30, 1647, Charles was given over to the commissioners of Parliament at Newcastle. The Prince of Wales had already escaped to France; and the war was ended, for the present, by the capture of Harlech Castle in Wales (March 30).

By this time, the moderate and Presbyterian party in Parliament had grown afraid of the army, in which Independent principles prevailed. Cromwell and his friends were aimed at by a vote dismissing all the superior officers, except Fairfax, who was a Presbyterian. The indignant soldiers required Fairfax to lead them towards London, and the frightened Parliament sent Cromwell, and the other generals of his party, to appease the soldiers. The army prepared to enforce their demands by seizing the king's person. Joyce, a cornet in Fairfax's life-guards, suddenly appeared at Holmby, where the king was kept, and brought him to the neighbourhood of the army, which was encamped on Newmarket Heath. They took a solemn engagement that they would not be disbanded, and advanced to Hounslow Heath, only twelve miles from London. They were met by the Speakers of both houses, Manchester and Lenthal, with their maces, followed by eight peers and about sixty commoners. With this show of authority on their side, the army entered London. Parliament voted all their demands; and the government fell into the hands of the Independents. (August).

The king had been taken to Hampton Court, where he amused Cromwell and Ireton with frequent conferences, while he was secretly calling the Scots to his aid. At length Charles fled to the Isle of Wight, and was conducted by the governor, Colonel Hammond, to what he found to

be his prison in Carisbrooke Castle (November 14). There he continued to negotiate with Cromwell and the council of officers, and at the same time to seek the aid of the Scots, till his fate was sealed by an attempt to escape. The window is still shown at Carisbrooke, between the bars of which King Charles stuck fast (December 28, 1647).

Parliament now voted that no more addresses should be made to the king, nor any further communications received from him (January 13, 1648). This vote was a virtual casting off of allegiance to Charles, whose friends tried once more the chance of war. There were tumults in London, and insurrections in Wales and Kent, which were put down by Cromwell, Fairfax, and Skippon. The fleet in the Downs hoisted the royal standard, and sailed for Holland, whence they returned, under the Prince of Wales, to harass the coast; but they failed to reach the Isle of Wight and set free the king. The Scottish army entered England under the Duke of Hamilton, and were joined by the Royalists of the north. But both armies were routed by Cromwell and Lambert; and Cromwell marched to Edinburgh, and placed the rule of Scotland in the hands of Argyle and the Covenanters.

During Cromwell's absence in Scotland, conferences were opened with the king at Newport by the moderate party. They were broken off on the 28th of November; and two days later Charles was seized by order of the council of the army, and carried to Hurst Castle on the Hampshire coast. One last struggle followed between the army and the Parliament, who adopted the concessions made by the king at Newport, as the basis of a treaty, by a majority of 129 to 83 (December 5).

Two days after this vote, the House of Commons was surrounded by a regiment of horse and one of foot. The commander, Colonel Pride, entered the lobby, arrested 47 leading members of the Presbyterian party, and shut out 96 others (December 7). Cromwell, who reached London the same night, expressed his approval of the deed. Many members, besides those who had been ex-

elled, retired into the country ; and 50 or 60 members, all of the Independent party, were left as that remnant of the famous Long Parliament which was nicknamed the Rump.

They proceeded to carry out the terrible resolve of the military leaders, to cut short all further attempts on the king's behalf by taking his life. Charles was suddenly brought to Windsor by a republican fanatic, Colonel Harrison (December 22). In the castle of his fathers he was no longer treated with the royal ceremony which had not till now been withheld from him in his captivity.

On the 1st of January, 1649, the Commons passed a vote, that it was high treason in a King of England to make war against the Parliament and kingdom ; and they ordained that a High Court of Justice should be erected, to try the question of fact, whether Charles Stewart, King of England, had been guilty of this treason. The Peers, of whom only 16 now attended, unanimously rejected both the vote and the ordinance. Hereupon the Commons —that is, the remnant of 50 or 60 members—voted that their House had supreme authority ; and by that authority they proceeded to confirm the ordinance for the king's trial (January 6). Thus was the Constitution subverted, in order to make the king personally responsible for its violation.

Charles was brought to Whitehall, and arraigned next day before the High Court of Justice in Westminster Hall (January 20). The Court had been composed of 150 members—Peers, Commoners, and Aldermen of London ; but these were reduced to 69 by the refusal of all the peers to act, and by the absence of several commoners. John Bradshaw, a lawyer, was President. A strong military force was in the Hall, to overawe any expression of feeling from the spectators ; but that feeling found utterance through a woman's courage. Fairfax had refused to take part in the proceedings, and when the clerk called his name, a female voice from the gallery cried, "He has more wit than to be here." The speaker was Lady Fairfax.

The king bore himself with the greatest dignity and calmness, and stedfastly refused to acknowledge the jurisdiction of the Court. The trial lasted through the ensuing week; and on Saturday, January 27, the Court adjudged "Charles Stewart—as a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy to the good people of the nation—to be put to death by severing his head from his body." The king was hurried from the Hall, without being suffered to speak; but the people outside followed him with the cry, "God preserve your Majesty."

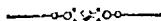
Sunday was observed by the Parliament as a public fast, with sermons on the divine judgments: by Charles in devotion, guided by Juxon, bishop of London. The king took leave of his two young children, Elizabeth, who was thirteen years old, and Henry, who was only eight. Taking the little Prince on his knee, he said, "Now they will cut off thy father's head, and perhaps make thee King: but mark what I say, thou must not be a king, as long as thy brothers, Charles and James, are alive." The child answered, with a sigh, "I will be torn in pieces first."

Even before the judgment was pronounced, Scotland had protested against the trial. Holland interceded for the king; and Charles, Prince of Wales, sent over a blank sheet with his signature and seal, for the Commons to insert the conditions on which they would spare his father's life. But the men, who had planned the deed for their own preservation, did not shrink from carrying it through. The death-warrant was signed on Monday; and at ten o'clock on the morning of Tuesday, the 30th of January, Charles was conducted on foot from St. James's Palace, across the Park, to the Banqueting-house built by his father at Whitehall. He spent some hours in prayer, and received the sacrament from Bishop Juxon. Between two and three o'clock in the afternoon, Charles stepped out from the central window to the scaffold, which was so beset with soldiers as to make an address to the people impossible. In a few words to the nearest bystanders, the King protested his innocence in the civil wars; but he confessed that his life was justly for-

feit to God, and that the unjust sentence on Strafford was now punished by the unjust sentence on himself. His last words were—"I go from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown :" and Juxon replied, " You exchange an earthly for an eternal crown—a good exchange." Charles laid his neck upon the block, and, after a short pause, stretched out his hands as a signal. At one blow his head was severed from his body by a masked executioner, whose name was never publicly known. Another, in the like disguise, held up the severed head, and cried aloud, " This is the head of a traitor!" The spectators answered with a deep groan ; and they were at once dispersed by the cavalry.

The king's remains were buried at Windsor on the 8th of February ; but Bishop Juxon was forbidden to read the funeral service of the Church of England. Nearly two centuries later, the coffin of King Charles was opened by order of George IV. His features, still perfect, proved the truth of Van Dyck's portraits.

It may be interesting to glance at the position of the royal family at the time of Charles's death. The Queen and the Prince of Wales had been abroad for some time, and James, Duke of York, had escaped from St. James's in the preceding spring. Charles's eldest daughter, Mary (born 1631), had been married to William II., Stadholder of Holland, in 1642. His youngest daughter, Henrietta Maria, had been taken abroad by the Queen, shortly after her birth, in 1644. Prince Henry was allowed to leave the country in 1652, when he joined his brother Charles, who made him Duke of Gloucester ; and he died soon after the Restoration (September 1660). The Council had given leave for the removal of the Princess Elizabeth to Holland, when she died in Carisbrooke Castle (1650). She was buried under the chancel of Newport church, where a monument has been erected to her memory by Queen Victoria, " as a token of respect for her virtues and of sympathy for her misfortunes."



CHAP. XXVIII.—THE COMMONWEALTH.*

FROM JANUARY 30, 1649, TO MAY 8, 1660.

NOTE.—*These Eleven Years are reckoned in legal documents as belonging to the reign of Charles II.*

Section I.—PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT.

FROM JANUARY 30, 1649, TO DECEMBER 13, 1653.

A week after the death of Charles I., a vote of the Commons dissolved the House of Lords as “useless and dangerous.” On the next day, they declared the office of King “unnecessary, burthensome, and dangerous,” and therefore to be abolished (February 7, 1649). Thus the whole power of the State rested in the House of Commons, that is to say, in the remnant, or Rump, of about seventy or eighty members. The expenses of government were supported, in a great degree, by fines imposed on royalists, and by the sequestration of their property. The Commons appointed an executive Committee of thirty-eight persons, with Bradshaw as President, and the great poet, JOHN MILTON, as Latin secretary.

The sister kingdoms, however, remained faithful to the royal cause. CHARLES II. was proclaimed at Edinburgh as King of Scotland (February 5); and a great royalist insurrection broke out in Ireland under the Duke of Ormond. Cromwell was appointed Lord Deputy of Ireland (June 22). He rapidly crushed the rebellion, storming Drogheda and Wexford, and putting to the sword not only the garrisons, but hundreds of the unarmed townsmen. Many were exported to the plantations as slaves. These terrible examples brought Ireland to submission.

On the very day of Cromwell’s return to England, the Marquis of Montrose, who had raised the royal standard in the north of Scotland, was hanged at Edinburgh with cruel insults (May 31, 1650). For, though the Presby-

* In their Latin documents, the Government used the title “Republic of England.” The words *Republic* and *Commonwealth* have the same meaning.

terian rulers of Scotland had proclaimed Charles II., they were resolved to receive him only on their own terms. Charles disavowed his commission to Montrose, accepted the Covenant, and arrived in Scotland on the 16th of June.

In that month, Cromwell, having succeeded Fairfax as Captain-general of the army of the Commonwealth, crossed the Tweed with 16,000 men, supported by a fleet which sailed along the coast. The veteran Lesley caught Cromwell's army in a trap; but Lesley was urged by the preachers to fight, against his will, and was signally defeated in the *Battle of Dunbar*, where 4000 Scots were slain, and 16,000 taken prisoners (September 3, 1650).

On the 1st of January, 1651, Charles II. was crowned at Scone; and, when Cromwell opened the new campaign by taking Perth, the young king formed the bold resolution of leading the Scottish army into England. A rapid march brought Charles to Worcester, where he stopped to rest his army. Cromwell, who had followed in swift pursuit, fell upon the royalists in the streets of Worcester, and almost utterly destroyed them, on the anniversary of the battle of Dunbar (September 3, 1651). Charles escaped from the field, and found shelter at the farm of Boscobel, with the brothers Penderell, whose noble loyalty is still rewarded by a pension to their descendants. It was here that Charles lay hidden among the boughs of the tree long known as the "Royal Oak," while the soldiers were searching for him through the wood. After a series of narrow adventures, Charles escaped from Shoreham, and landed in Normandy in October.

While these victories established the power of Cromwell, the Republic gained glory at sea through the prowess of ROBERT BLAKE and other commanders, who had suddenly been changed from Colonels into Admirals. Blake held the royalist fleet under Prince Rupert in check on the coast of Ireland, chased it into the mouth of the Tagus, and forced the King of Portugal into an alliance with the Commonwealth. The Scilly and Channel islands, and the American plantations, were next subdued under

the new government. But now another field opened for the prowess of the English navy.

The *United Provinces* of the Netherlands had long afforded a refuge to the royalists. On the death of the Stadholder William II. Prince of Orange, the son-in-law of Charles I. (1650), proposals were made for an alliance between the two Republics. But commercial and maritime jealousy prevailed : and the English Parliament attacked Dutch commerce through the *Navigations Act*, which forbade the importation of goods in any foreign vessels, except those of the country which produced the goods (October 9, 1651).*

The *First Dutch War* was declared by Parliament on July 8, 1652 ; but not till after a great battle had been fought in the Downs between Blake and the famous Dutch admiral Tromp (May 19). Other actions took place, with varying success, till the superior numbers of the Dutch forced Blake to retire into the Thames ; and Tromp carried a broom at his mast-head, as a sign that he had swept the English navy from their own seas. The Parliament strained every nerve to equip a new fleet ; and the insult was avenged by Blake's victory in a three days' fight up the Channel and Straits, from Portland to the Scheldt (February 18-20, 1653). A second victory was gained by Monk and Penn off the North Foreland (June 2) ; and a third off the island of Texel, where the Dutch fleet was almost destroyed on their own shores, and Tromp was killed (July 31). When peace was made with Holland (April 5, 1654), the free Commonwealth of England had come to an end ; and its great deeds are often overlooked amidst the fame of Cromwell.

The resolution of the Commons to reduce the army sealed their own fate. On the 20th of April, 1653, Cromwell led 300 soldiers into the lobby, and took his usual seat in the House. In the midst of a warm debate, he cried, " You are no Parliament : bring them in ; bring them in ; " and above twenty musketeers marched into the House. Sir

* The *Navigations Laws*, of which this was the first and chief, were only repealed in 1849.

Henry Vane,* one of the most zealous republicans, exclaimed, “This is not honest.”—“Sir Harry Vane!” cried Cromwell, “O, Sir Harry Vane! The Lord deliver me from Sir Harry Vane!”—Then he turned on member after member with angry abuse, and at last ordered the guard to clear the house. Of all the famous Long Parliament, the mace alone was left. “What shall we do with this fool’s bauble?” said Oliver: “Here, carry it away.” He ordered the doors to be locked, put the keys in his pocket, and returned to his lodging in the palace of Whitehall.

A new Parliament was chosen by Cromwell and his officers from lists of known Independents.† From its small numbers it is known as “The Little Parliament”; but the ludicrous name of one of its members, “Praise God Barebone,” gave it the nickname of “Barebone’s Parliament” (July 4, 1653).

This republican assembly proved so little subservient to Cromwell’s views, that it was got to dissolve itself by a trick (December 13). A council of officers then drew up an *Instrument of Government*, by which OLIVER CROMWELL was appointed *Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland*. He was to govern with a Council of twenty-one members, and to summon a Parliament every three years. The office was to be for life, and, on the death of the Protector, his successor was to be appointed by the Council (December 16, 1653). Thus, within the space of just four years, the *Commonwealth*, though keeping its name, was really swallowed up in a *Military Despotism*—subject to the will of an usurping soldier, supported by his army. For, whatever may have been Cromwell’s motives, all agree that he usurped by the power of the sword the authority which belonged to the free state of England.

* “Vane, young in years, but in sage counsel old.” (MILTON.)

† This Parliament was the first which contained members from all the three countries of the British Isles:—namely, 128 from England and Wales, with only 5 from Scotland, and 6 from Ireland. This union, enforced by conquest, ceased at the Restoration.

Section II.—THE PROTECTORATE.—A.D. 1653–1659.

I. OLIVER CROMWELL, PROTECTOR.

FROM DECEMBER 16, 1653, TO SEPTEMBER 3, 1658.

OLIVER CROMWELL was born at Huntingdon on the 25th of April, 1599. His father was a man of middle rank and some fortune. Oliver was educated at Cambridge, and studied law in London; but he married early, and lived in his native town, for which he first sat in the Parliament of 1629. One who saw him there describes his plain country dress, his reddish and swollen countenance, and his sharp harsh voice, which spoke, however, in language void of grace, but vigorous, and always to the point. He had never been a soldier, till the civil war called forth his military genius, when he had nearly reached the age at which his modern counterpart, Napoleon, fought his last battle. Cromwell was in his fiftieth year at the death of Charles; and his power with the army had given him the command of the Commonwealth. In private society he was remarkable for good humour, which often broke out into broad jokes. His family life was full of affection and free from all reproach. His religion was sincere and earnest; but it did not keep him from the self-delusion of thinking that he was serving God, while he gratified his own ambition. Like all usurpers, he justified his lawless acts by the plea of necessity.

The elevation of Cromwell to the Protectorate made him a mark for royalist conspiracies and for republican opposition. The nation had not been heartily with the Parliament since the death of Charles I.; and they had no liking for a usurper, whose power was maintained by the army. But, amidst constant dissensions at home, Cromwell raised Britain to unexampled influence abroad. We say *Britain* here especially, as Scotland was incorporated by him with England and Wales in April, 1654.

The alliance which he made with Holland in the same

month was joined by the Protestant states of Denmark and Switzerland; and treaties were made with Sweden and Portugal. Cromwell declared himself the protector of Protestantism throughout Europe, and threatened the Pope himself with war, if the liberties of the Protestants of Savoy were not respected. A fleet under Blake made a successful attack on the piratical states of Barbary, in Northern Africa, which used to capture men for slaves on the coasts of Europe, and to keep thousands of Christian prisoners as galley-slaves chained to the oar.

France and Spain were now once more at rivalry; and CARDINAL MAZARIN, who governed France during the minority of Louis XIV., sought the alliance of England. The enterprises of the Elizabethan age in the West were renewed by this war with Spain. A fleet under Penn and Venables conquered the rich island of *Jamaica* (1655). Blake, after destroying a fleet of treasure-ships at Santa Cruz in the Canaries, died on his way home (1657). The English and French forces gained a victory in the Spanish Netherlands, by which Great Britain won *Dunkirk*, just a century after the loss of Calais (1658).

At home, the Protector had to reap the fruit of his usurpation in opposition, rebellion, and plots against his life. General George Monk, whom he had left in Scotland, put down the resistance to the union with England, as well as a royalist plot under Lord Middleton (1654). Ireland was wisely governed by the Protector's younger son, Henry Cromwell. But in England, the attempt to keep up the show of Parliamentary freedom, under a government of military force, proved a failure.

The Protector dismissed his *First Parliament* in anger.—A *Second Parliament*, from which 100 of the elected members were excluded by warrants of the Council, met in September, 1656. After Cromwell had declined their offer of the Crown, they presented to him an “Humble Petition and Advice,” by which the Protectorate was renewed with fresh powers (1657). “His Highness” was authorized to name his successor, and to appoint a House of Peers,

Cromwell was again inaugurated as Protector with great state in Westminster Hall. But his appointment of 60 peers led to dissensions with the Commons, and this Parliament was dissolved on the 4th of February, 1658.

As in the time of Elizabeth, Spain made war on Protestant England by the arts of secret conspiracy and assassination. But now, instead of Jesuits, her agents were the extreme Republican fanatics, called *Levellers*, whom Cromwell had been resolute in putting down. One of these, Colonel Sexby, was employed to raise a rebellion (1656); and Syndercombe, an agent of Sexby, made an attempt on Cromwell's life (January 19, 1657). The assassination of the usurper was openly preached in a pamphlet written by Colonel Titus, a royalist, under the expressive title of "Killing no Murder." Sexby came over at the end of the year, doubtless to put the doctrine into practice; but he was arrested, and he died in the Tower.

These constant dangers clouded Cromwell's spirits and broke down his health. He died of an ague, in the 60th year of his age, on the anniversary of Dunbar and Worcester (September 3, 1658). He was buried in Henry VII.'s Chapel; but, as we shall see, his body was not suffered to lie with the Tudors and the Stewarts.

II. RICHARD CROMWELL, PROTECTOR.

FROM SEPTEMBER 3, 1658, TO MAY 25, 1659.

RICHARD, the elder son of Oliver Cromwell, was proclaimed Protector by the Council; and his title was confirmed by the Parliament which he assembled on the 29th of January, 1659.

Richard's gentle character was quite unfit to curb the insolence of the army; and he was compelled by his own relations, Fleetwood and Desborough, to dissolve the Parliament. The council of officers, acting with the Republicans, now recalled the remnant of the Long Parliament; but the members expelled in 1648 were still excluded. A

new Council of 31 members was appointed, including Fairfax, Bradshaw, and others who had separated from Cromwell. Richard resigned the Protectorate (May 25), and retired to the Continent; and his brother Henry gave up the government of Ireland. Both returned afterwards, and lived the quiet life of country gentlemen. Henry died in Cambridgeshire in 1674: Richard survived the fall of the Stewarts 24 years, and died at Cheshunt in 1712.

The story is told that Richard Cromwell once took a Dutch friend, who only knew him by his assumed name, to see King William open Parliament. "What a splendid sight!" said the foreigner; "did you ever see it before?" "*Not since I sat in that chair!*" answered the fallen Protector, pointing to the throne.

Section III.—THE YEAR OF CONFUSION.

FROM MAY 25, 1659, TO MAY 8, 1660.

THE restored Parliament still dreamed of curbing the army. The attempt encouraged a royalist insurrection, which was put down by General Lambert, who again expelled the Parliament (October 13). The officers again assumed the government as a Committee of Public Safety. But the power of deciding these disputes lay with the army of Scotland, under GENERAL GEORGE MONK, a man who knew how to govern his ambition by his interest.

Without revealing his further designs, Monk declared for the Parliament, and began his march southward. Lambert, who went to meet him, was deserted by his troops. At York, Monk was joined by Lord Fairfax, the head of the Presbyterian party. He entered London on the 3rd of February, and restored the Presbyterian majority of the Long Parliament; and they appointed Monk Commander-in-chief of the army and the navy.

Meanwhile negotiations had been opened with Charles II. at Breda in Holland; and it only remained to secure a formal invitation for his return. With this view the Long

Parliament finally dissolved itself on the 16th of March, and summoned a *Convention* to meet on the 25th of April.*

On the 1st of May, a letter from Charles was read to both Houses, accompanied by the famous *Declaration of Breda*, in which he promised liberty of conscience and a general amnesty, with such exceptions only as Parliament might make. A commission carried back an answer from both Houses, inviting him to return and assume the government. Without waiting for his arrival, KING CHARLES II. was proclaimed in London on the 8th of May, 1660. On the 25th of May, Charles landed at Dover, and received an enthusiastic welcome into London on his 30th birthday (May 29th). “It must surely have been my fault (said Charles) that I did not come before; for I have met with no one to-day who did not protest that he always wished for my restoration.”



CHAP. XXIX.—CHARLES II. STEWART.

FROM MAY 8, 1660, TO FEBRUARY 6, 1685.

(But, in public documents, his reign is reckoned from January 30, 1649.)

Born, May 29, 1630. *Reigned* (as reckoned), 36 years; (in fact) 25 years. *Age*, 55.

CHARLES II. was the first prince of the house of Stewart who was born an Englishman; but his exile had made him almost a Frenchman in tastes and manners. As a boy of twelve years old, he had stood beside his father at the raising of the standard at Nottingham; and he had borne a part in the first two years of the civil war. He then fled to Holland, and afterwards to France; and, as we have seen, he was for a short time in command of the royalist fleet. His year's experience as king of Scotland had sown in his mind a bitter dislike of the Presbyterians,

* A *Convention of the Estates of the Realm* is a body composed, like Parliament, of Spiritual and Temporal Peers and elected Commoners; but not summoned, like Parliament, by the King. Another such Convention met in 1689 to choose a new king in place of James II. In both cases the Convention was constituted as a Parliament under the new sovereign.

who had forced him to take the Covenant, and held him in a sort of bondage. His nine years' exile, since the battle of Worcester, had been spent in wanderings between France, the Spanish Netherlands, and Holland, sometimes in actual want.

Disappointment had taught Charles to despise men and principles, and to live for enjoyment. The chief lesson that he drew from his adversity was the firm resolve, not again to risk the crown, which gave him licence to pursue his pleasures. His natural good sense often guarded him against the counsel of bad advisers, such as his brother, JAMES, DUKE OF YORK. Charles is reported to have once said, "Brother, I have no wish to go on my travels again." But he was quite ready to use despotic power, supported by foreign pay, to secure his crown and to crush his party foes. He gained popularity by living openly among the people, and by the charm of an easy indolent good-nature, adorned with wit and graceful manners. But his graces were on the surface; he was selfish and faithless; and he had an utter aversion to business. His character was summed up in the mock epitaph of his boon companion, the Earl of Rochester:—

"Here lies our sovereign lord the King,
Whose word no man relies on;
Who never said a foolish thing,
And never did a wise one."*

A small band of friends had adhered to Charles in exile; some, like Rochester, the companions of his pleasures; but there were also a few who gave him serious and sage advice. The most faithful of these was the old popular leader, Sir Edward Hyde, who was now made Lord Chancellor and EARL OF CLARENDON.† Monk was created Duke of Albemarle and Captain-General of the forces.

The Convention, having been declared a Parliament,

* Charles is said to have replied wittily, "Quite true! for my words my own; my deeds are my ministers."

On September 3, 1660, the Duke of York made a private marriage Anne Hyde, the daughter of Clarendon, who became the grandfather queens of England—Mary and Anne.

settled on the king a revenue of 1,200,000*l.* for life. In this settlement, the old feudal rights of the Crown were finally abolished, and an Excise on beer and other liquors was granted in their stead.* The promised *Act of Indemnity* for offences during the “Great Rebellion” was passed; but the *Regicides*,† and some others, were excepted by name and attainted. Ten of them were executed, and nineteen were imprisoned for life. A meaner revenge was taken on those who had already died. On the anniversary of the late king’s execution, the bodies of Cromwell, his son-in-law Ireton, and Bradshaw, who had sat as president of the court, were dragged from their graves and hanged on the gibbet at Tyburn, beneath which they were again buried, while their heads were exposed on Westminster Hall (January 31, 1661). These acts of vengeance were concluded eighteen months later by the trial and execution of Sir Henry Vane (June 14, 1662).

The Convention Parliament provided for the disbanding of the army, except a force of 1000 horse and 4000 foot, which formed the first beginning of our *Standing Army*. The displaced clergy were restored to their benefices; but the present holders were suffered to remain, if the former incumbents were dead. Nor must we omit to mention the establishment of a *General Post-Office* for London. This Parliament was dissolved on the 29th of December, 1660.

On the 1st of January, 1661, a Parliament met in Scotland, and began the work of reaction and revenge under the guidance of the Earl of Lauderdale, who had been once a zealous Covenanter. The Covenant was renounced; the king’s supremacy and the Episcopal form of Church government were restored. The Marquis of Argyle was executed for treason, after a mock trial (May 27).

In England, the king showed a desire to carry out the Declaration of Breda. A Conference was held, at the

* This was the continuance of an Excise Duty on beer, cider, ale, and perry, imposed by Parliament to meet the cost of the civil war (1645). Duties were also laid on tea and coffee, which were now coming into use.

† That is, those who had sat on the court that condemned Charles I.

Savoy Palace in the Strand, between twelve Bishops and twelve leading Presbyterian ministers, to consider the objections to the Liturgy (April 15). But it only ended (like the Hampton Court Conferences under James I.) in confirming and widening their differences.

The new elections showed the altered temper of the nation. A Parliament of devoted royalists and churchmen met on the 8th of May, 1661, and lasted for nearly 18 years, till January 24, 1679. From the bribes which its members took, both from the English court and from the king of France, it obtained the name of the *Pension Parliament*. Besides measures for the full restoration of the king's authority, it passed the *Corporation Act*, which required all officers of the local government of towns* to take the sacrament according to the form of the Church of England (1661). They were further required to abjure the Covenant, and also the "traitorous position" of taking arms in the king's name against himself or his officers. This "oath of non-resistance" was now adopted as the favourite test of disloyalty in opinion.

Meanwhile the Convocation of the Clergy revised the forms of Common Prayer; and the use of the new Prayer Book was imposed by Parliament in the next Session (1662). The new *Act of Uniformity* required all clergymen to declare their "unfeigned assent and consent to all and everything" in this book, to receive episcopal ordination, to abjure the Covenant, and to take the oath of non-resistance. All who refused were deprived of their preferments from the ensuing Feast of St. Bartholomew (Aug. 24). On that day 2000 clergymen left their livings; and the *Nonconformists* henceforth became *Dissenters*. But the exercise of their ministry under this new character was forbidden on pain of fine and imprisonment; and the like penalties were afterwards imposed on all worshippers in dissenting congregations by the *Conventicle Act* (1664). The deprived clergy had their chief friends in the towns, and

* These governing bodies are called *Municipal Corporations*, from two Latin words, signifying a *privileged town* and a *body of persons*.

their best means of earning a living was by teaching. Therefore the *Five Mile Act* was passed, forbidding all, who would not take the oath of non-resistance, to come within five miles of any corporate town, and disabling them from keeping schools (1665).

We must now look at the relations of Charles to Europe, where a new power arose just at the time of his restoration. LOUIS XIV., "the Grand Monarch" had become king of France in his fifth year (May 14, 1643). His reign lasted for the vast space of 72 years, from almost the beginning of the Civil War under Charles I. till after the accession of George I. (Louis died on the 1st of September, 1715).

In 1661, Louis, who was now 23, took the government into his own hands, and formed an alliance with England, to support Portugal against Spain. His brother Philip, Duke of Orleans, was married to Henrietta Maria, sister of Charles II.; and Charles married *Catherine of Braganza*, daughter of John IV. of Portugal (May 21, 1662). The queen brought as a part of her dowry the fortress of Tangier (on the African coast opposite Gibraltar) and the Indian possession of *Bombay*. On the other hand, the extravagance of Charles enabled Louis to purchase back from him Cromwell's conquests on the French coast, Dunkirk and Mardyke (1662).

But new causes of quarrel with the Dutch soon involved Charles in war, both with the Provinces, and with France as their ally. An English company, formed for trading to the Gold Coast of West Africa,* came into conflict with the Dutch settlements. The English admiral, Sir Robert Holmes, proceeded to capture the Dutch colony of New Amsterdam in America (August 27, 1664). The place received the since famous name of NEW YORK, in honour of the royal Duke, who was patron of the Company. The *Second Dutch War* was formally declared next year; and the Duke of York, who was Lord High Admiral, gained a great victory in Solebay, off Lowestoft (June, 1665).

* The first *guineas* coined in England were so called because they were made of the gold brought by this company from Guinea (1663).

But now a new calamity broke out at home. The *Great Plague of London*, which first appeared in December, 1664, became severe during the dry spring and hot summer of 1665, till in August and September the deaths reached 8000 or 10,000 in a week. The Parliament removed to Oxford; the Court and nobility fled from London; and thousands of families encamped in the fields round the city. Houses were shut up, and whole streets were deserted, except by the solitary passenger staggering home to die. The noise of busy traffic gave place to the rumbling of the dead-cart and the voice of the bellman, crying, "Bring out your dead!" The rites of burial were soon neglected, and the corpses were flung from carts into yawning "plague-pits." As in all great pestilences, the sight of ever-present death inflamed pleasure with a wilder licence. The sounds of revelry were mingled with the cry of a fanatic who stalked about denouncing, "Woe unto the city!" The Plague declined when the winter set in, having carried off about 68,000, or some said 100,000, from a population of about half a million.

With the new year (1666),* Louis came to the help of his Dutch allies, and declared war against England. But his fleet was not ready to do much. The Duke of Albermarle and Prince Rupert fought a hard sea-fight in the Downs for four days against the Dutch (June 1-4). A more decisive victory off the North Foreland gave England for a time the mastery of the sea (July 25).

On Sunday eveⁿ, 2nd of September, the *Great Fire of London*^{roke out} a baker's house near London Bridge, ^{the spot still marked by the column called "the Monument," built by Christopher Wren.} The fire raged for three days and three nights, and devoured the old wooden houses, from the Tower to the Temple, and from the Thames to Holborn Bridge and Cripplegate. It was only

* This is the year which JOHN DRYDEN named, in a famous poem, *Annus Mirabilis*, the "Year of Wonders," the Plague, Battle, and Fire. It is also memorable for the foundation of the "Royal Society for Improving Natural Knowledge."

at last stopped at the great gaps made by blowing up houses with gunpowder (September 6).

The Great Fire burnt out the lingering Plague, which has not since appeared in London ; it also gave an opportunity for raising a new city in the style of which Dryden prophesied :—

“ Her widening streets on new foundations trust,
And opening into larger parts she flies.”

But the haste of rebuilding kept the old narrow crooked streets ; and the improvements of two centuries have only worked back towards the plan devised by the genius of the great architect, SIR CHRISTOPHER WREN, who built the new Cathedral of St. Paul, for the old church perished in the fire.

England now desired peace ; and during the negotiations her navy was neglected. The Dutch fleet, under De Ruyter and De Witt, appeared suddenly at the Nore, took the fort of Sheerness, and burnt the ships laid up in the Medway off Chatham. They then sailed up the Thames nearly to Gravesend, and blockaded the port of London. But Louis XIV. would not suffer his Dutch allies to become too strong at sea : and peace was concluded at Breda (July 21, 1667).

The popular indignation at these disasters claimed a victim ; and the court was ready to sacrifice the Earl of Clarendon. Charles was tired of his grave viser, who had a powerful rival in George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, the profligate and restless son of the favourite of Charles I. Clarendon had made himself offensive to all parties by his arrogance and ostentation ; and he was unjustly charged with a corrupt part in the sale of Dunkirk. Charles dismissed Clarendon from the office of Lord Chancellor with marked disgrace, and he was impeached by the House of Commons. He retired to the Continent by the king's command, and was sentenced to banishment for life (1667). Clarendon spent his exile in writing his “History of the Great Rebellion,” and his “Memoirs,” and died at Röuen in 1674.

The new Ministry now formed was called the King's

CABAL, an English word equivalent to the French *Cabinet*. Of its members we need only name the Duke of Buckingham, the Earl of Arlington, and a man who soon became a great power in the state, Anthony Ashley Cooper, Lord Ashley, better known by his later title of EARL OF SHAFESBURY. Though the very name of this Ministry passed into a byword, they began with attempts at religious peace at home, and a bold and wise policy abroad.

After the death of Philip IV. of Spain, Louis XIV. claimed the Spanish Netherlands, as the inheritance of his wife, who was Philip's daughter; and he began his long wars for the conquest of those Provinces (1667). SIR WILLIAM TEMPLE, our ambassador to the Dutch, formed the *Triple Alliance* of England, Holland, and Sweden; which was the first of the many leagues against the ambitious schemes of Louis (1668). But Charles himself entered into private negotiations with Louis, to obtain money to supply his extravagance, and troops to keep down his subjects if necessary. For these objects the *Secret Treaty of Dover* was signed (1670): Charles engaged to profess the Roman Catholic religion * and to renounce the Triple Alliance, and he became the pensioner of Louis for 120,000*l.* a year to support a new war with the United Provinces!

In accordance with this shameful bargain, the *Third Dutch War* was declared by England and France at the same time (1672). The Duke of York gained a hard-fought battle against De Ruyter in Southwold Bay. An English force, under the king's natural son, James, Duke of MONMOUTH, served with Louis, who quickly overran the Netherlands. The Provinces seemed on the point of ruin; when the deliverer arose, who was to save both them and England from Bourbon conquest and Stewart tyranny. This was WILLIAM HENRY, Prince of Orange, and son of Mary, the daughter of Charles I. †

* It was now known publicly that the Duke of York had become a Roman Catholic. He was "heir presumptive," as Charles had no lawful children; and it was thought that the English people might wish to prevent James from becoming king.

† He was born on November 4, 1650, eight days after the death of

The hard terms of peace offered by Louis drove the Dutch people to such frenzy, that their chief magistrate, the Pensionary De Witt, was torn to pieces with his brother at the Hague, and the Prince of Orange was proclaimed Stadholder, as William III. He declared that, if he could not save his country, he would die in her last ditch. By cutting the dykes, and laying the country under water, he forced Louis to retreat for this year.

Meanwhile a new religious storm was rising in England. In March, 1672, the king had suspended the penal laws against Nonconformists by a *Declaration of Indulgence*. This proclamation released JOHN BUNYAN from his twelve years' imprisonment in Bedford gaol, where he wrote his 'Pilgrim's Progress.' The advisers of this measure were Clifford, a Roman Catholic, and Ashley, who was aspiring to lead the popular Protestant party. It was now that Ashley was made Earl of Shaftesbury, and soon afterwards Lord Chancellor.

Parliament, on re-assembling, protested against the Declaration of Indulgence, which the king withdrew (1673). But, more than this, they passed the *Test Act*, which required all public officers to receive the sacrament according to the form of the Church of England, to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and to sign a declaration against the Roman Catholic doctrine of transubstantiation.*

This Act excluded both Roman Catholics and Protestant Dissenters from holding public offices; but it was aimed chiefly against the Catholics. The Duke of York resigned his office of Lord High Admiral. The Commons were proceeding to vote addresses against Popery and the French alliance, when Parliament was suddenly prorogued

his father, William II., Prince of Orange, and Stadholder of the United Provinces. Observe that his name bore the same number, William III. among the Stadholders of Holland, as afterwards among the Kings of England.

* It was not till 1828 that the disabilities both of Protestant Dissenters and Roman Catholics from holding office were removed by the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts.

(1673). Shaftesbury was dismissed five days later, and the Cabal ministry was broken up. The new Lord Treasurer, Thomas Osborn, who was soon afterwards made EARL OF DANBY, was a staunch supporter of the royal prerogative, but was opposed to Popery and France.

The refusal of Parliament to grant supplies caused Charles to purchase a separate peace with Holland by the Treaty of Westminster (1674). Two years later, Charles made a new secret treaty, by which he became finally the pensioner of Louis, and each of the two kings engaged to make no foreign alliance without the other's consent (1676). In public, Charles still professed friendship for the United Provinces; and Mary, the daughter of the Duke of York, was married to the Stadholder William, Prince of Orange (1677).

Meanwhile the opposition in Parliament, led by Shaftesbury and Buckingham, had been gaining strength through the popular dread of Popery. A terrible means of using this feeling against the Government was furnished by the alleged discovery of the famous POPISH PLOT. The informer was TITUS OATES, who had been in turn an extreme Dissenter under the Commonwealth, a clergyman at the Restoration, and a convert to Romanism in the English Jesuit college at St. Omer. Expelled thence for disgraceful conduct, he returned, in his character of a clergyman, to reveal the plots which (he said) he had heard the Jesuits talk over. The scheme—as he stated it before the Council—included the murder of the king, the massacre of all Protestants, and a second burning of London. The crown of England was to be offered to the Duke of York, to hold it (like King John) as the vassal of the Pope; but even James was to be murdered if he refused. The justice before whom Oates swore his information, Sir Edmundsbury Godfrey, was found murdered in a ditch at Primrose Hill; and his funeral was a scene of wild popular excitement. Magistrates and citizens, in fear of the same fate, went about carrying under their cloaks a jointed cudgel, which was called the "Protestant flail."

Parliament, meeting on the 21st of October, 1678, affirmed the reality of the Plot, and passed an Act disabling Papists from sitting in either House.* The Commons proceeded to impeach the Earl of Danby for his share in the last secret treaty with Louis XIV.; but Charles stopped the proceedings by a prorogation. This "Pension Parliament," which had sat for eighteen years, was dissolved on the 24th of January, 1679.

The trials for the Popish Plot had now begun. Father Coleman, the Duke of York's confessor, was the first executed (December). The Court, in alarm for their own existence, prompted Chief Justice Scroggs to browbeat the accused, and to encourage Oates in his shameless and self-contradictory evidence. The "saviour of the nation" (as he called himself) had a pension of 1200*l.* a year, a lodging in Whitehall, and a body-guard. Such rewards of perjury soon tempted new witnesses; victims were aimed at in higher and higher places, till Oates dared to accuse the queen herself of high treason. The elections, held amidst this outburst of Protestant alarm, went so completely against the Court, that the Duke of York retired to Brussels.

The *Third Parliament* of Charles II. met on March 6, 1679. The impeachment of Danby was revived; he was committed to the Tower; and the pardon, which Charles had meanwhile granted him, was voted to be illegal. A new plan of administration was devised by Sir William Temple. The king was to govern by the advice of a Council of thirty persons, with Shaftesbury as President. Within this large body there was soon formed a CABINET, composed of the Earls of Shaftesbury and Sunderland, and Viscount Halifax. Sunderland was Secretary of State. Halifax was the head of the party expressively called *Trimmers*, from the wavering course which they pursued between the Court and the Country Party.

These last, headed by Shaftesbury, adopted the unfounded

* This Act was repealed under George IV. in 1829, by what is called the Catholic Emancipation Act.

claim of the Duke of Monmouth to be rightful heir-apparent to the throne, based on a pretended marriage between the king, his father, and his mother, Lucy Waters. Their "*Exclusion Bill*," to shut out the Duke of York from the succession to the throne, was at once stopped by the dissolution of the Parliament (May 27, 1679).

But, on the day before, Charles had given his assent to one of the greatest measures ever enacted by an English Parliament. We owe to Shaftesbury the *HABEAS CORPUS* Act, "for the better securing of the liberty of the subject, and for the prevention of imprisonments beyond the seas." This Act secured the personal freedom, which had been guaranteed in the Great Charter, by strict rules for compelling the bringing of every prisoner into court within a certain number of days, for trial and sentence or deliverance according to law.*

The Midsummer of this year was marked by a memorable conflict with the Covenanters in Scotland. A party of fanatics had cruelly murdered Archbishop Sharp; and the band of insurgents, whom they gathered about them, defeated a body of dragoons, under John Graham of Claverhouse, at Loudoun Hill, near Drumclog. This gave the signal for an insurrection of the western Covenanters, which was put down by the Duke of Monmouth in the *Battle of Bothwell Bridge* on the Clyde (June 22, 1679). Monmouth's lenity to the insurgents was bitterly resented by Lauderdale and Claverhouse; and he was superseded by the Duke of York, who had now returned from the Continent.

For the Popish Plot had received its first great check in the acquittal of the queen's physician, Sir George Wakeman (July 18). The Court took courage to postpone the meeting of the newly elected Parliament, and to dismiss the Earl of Shaftesbury from the Council. On the other hand, the flagging zeal of the people was stimulated by a new plot, more mysterious than the first, called

* The Latin phrase *Habens Corpus* forms the beginning of the writ (that is, the written order of the court), directing the person who holds any one in custody to produce his body in court.

the *Meal-Tub Plot*, which was revealed by a witness named Dangerfield. Monmouth, who had been ordered to retire to Holland, now returned; and the “Protestant Duke,” as he was called, was received in London with public rejoicings. The “Catholic Duke” also returned from Scotland (February, 1680), and regained all his influence at the Court.

Shaftesbury was now preparing for a struggle of life or death. He procured *addresses* from all parts of the country, praying for the speedy meeting of Parliament. Counter-addresses were sent up by the Court party, declaring their *abhorrence* of this interference with the king’s prerogative. The country was divided into the two factions of *Addressers* and *Abhorriers*; but these names soon gave place to the famous party distinctions of *Whig* and *Tory*.^{*} Shaftesbury accused the Duke of York, as a Popish recusant—that is, one who refused to take the test—before the grand jury of Middlesex; but Chief Justice Scroggs dismissed the jury. This summer, too, Monmouth made a journey through the West of England, and was received by the people like a king.

At length, the *Fourth Parliament* of Charles met on the 21st of October, 1680. The *Exclusion Bill* passed the Commons, but it was thrown out by the Lords, chiefly through the powerful speech made against it by Halifax. The Commons took their revenge by insisting on the trial of the Catholic Lords, who were confined in the Tower on the charge of being parties to the plot. One of these, William Howard, Viscount Stafford, was convicted by the Peers, and executed on the 29th of December. But the shameless perjury of the witnesses, and the popular sym-

* The term *Whig* or *Whigamore* was at first applied to the Covenanters in the West of Scotland, who were mostly peasants. It is said by some to have been the word used by carters to their horses, “*Whig! Whig!*” (“get on”) like *Gee up*, but other accounts are given of its origin. *Tory* was the name of some Irish banditti; and it was given to the court party from their alleged design of bringing over the wild Irish (as James II. did) to put down the English people. The very remoteness of the first meaning of such words from their common use makes them better party titles than words more significant and, therefore, more easily misunderstood.

pathy shown for the aged nobleman, sealed the fate of the Plot, and Stafford's was the last blood shed on its account.

Charles now took the bold step of dissolving Parliament, and summoning another at the loyal city of Oxford. The meeting of this *Fifth* and last Parliament of Charles II., on March 21st, 1681, revives the memory of the "Mad Parliament" of Oxford in the time of Henry III. and De Montfort. The king came surrounded by his guards and by troops of loyal country gentlemen. The exclusionists appeared with armed followers, wearing in their hats the watchwords, "No Popery! No Slavery." They at once revived the Popish Plot, the Exclusion Bill, and the impeachment of Danby.

But Charles had a secret source of strength. Exactly a week after the meeting of Parliament, he signed another treaty with Louis XIV. for an unconditional pension of 50,000*l.* quarterly. On the same day he dissolved the Parliament, and he never called another. (March 28.) The "Declaration," which he addressed to the people, called forth a strong feeling against the violence of the Exclusionists and the odious Plot.

The Court proceeded to acts of vengeance, with the aid of some of the very same perjurers who had supported the Plot. Shaftesbury was committed to the Tower, and indicted for high treason; but the grand jury ignored* the Bill, amidst the loud cheers of the people (November 24). The court secured the election of the new sheriffs, who could be trusted to make up subservient juries; and Shaftesbury fled to Holland, with his friend, the great philosopher, JOHN LOCKE. There the restless Earl died two months later (January, 1683).

London was punished for its devotion to the popular cause by the forfeiture of its Charter and the prosecution of several leading citizens. Many other towns were com-

* The Grand Jury decide the first question, whether the case against an accused person is strong enough to require his being sent for trial. If they find it not so, they write on the indictment the Latin word *Ignoramus*, "we ignore," i.e., we do not find any case against the accused.

elled to surrender their Charters, and to purchase new ones, which gave the Crown the appointment of their chief magistrates and officers. In Scotland, under the Duke of York, the Earl of Argyle, son of the Marquis beheaded in 1661, was condemned to death on the flimsiest pretext; but he escaped to Holland.

These proceedings were held by some of the leading Whigs to justify resistance; and a conspiracy was formed by WILLIAM LORD RUSSELL (son of the Duke of Bedford), ALGERNON SIDNEY, and others, to secure the succession of Monmouth. At the same time another plot was formed by men of a different class, to assassinate the king, on his return from Newmarket, at a farm called the *Rye House*, in Hertfordshire.* The “Rye House Plot” was frustrated by the king’s returning from Newmarket earlier than was expected; and its discovery was followed by the betrayal of the “Whig Conspiracy,” as that of Russell and Sidney was called.

The crown lawyers mixed up the two plots (like the *Main* and *Bye* in the time of James I. and Raleigh); and Lord Russell and Algernon Sidney were executed, after trials which were a mockery of justice (1683). Monmouth purchased his pardon by a confession; but he was soon banished from court, and fled to Holland (1684). The Duke of York was restored to his office of Lord High Admiral; and Lord Halifax remained the only rival to his ascendancy at court.

On the very day fixed for a Council to decide between them, Charles was seized with a fit of apoplexy. He recovered sufficiently to be received into the Roman Catholic Church; and died within the week, on the 6th of February, 1685. He was buried in Westminster Abbey.

* Charles II. and his brother were constant visitors to the races at Newmarket, which were founded by Charles I.



CHAP. XXX.—JAMES II. STEWART.

FROM FEBRUARY 6, 1685, TO DECEMBER 11, 1688.

Born, October 15, 1633. *Reigned*, 4 years. *Died*, September 16, 1701. *Age*, 68.

JAMES, THE SECOND of England and Ireland, and the SEVENTH of Scotland, was welcomed by the loyalty of all three countries to thrones, the foundations of which he had helped to shake. Within an hour of his brother's death, the king declared to the Council his purpose of governing according to the laws, and going as far as any man in support of the liberties of the country, for which he had fought. He assured them that he would maintain the established government in Church and State. But he at once levied taxes by his own authority till the meeting of Parliament, and on the second Sunday of his reign he went openly to mass.

The fierce struggle for civil and religious despotism, which makes up the brief but stirring story of this reign, was begun under the specious guise of toleration. A proclamation was issued, for the release of all persons confined for refusing to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy. This applied only to the Catholics and to the Quakers, who had a friend at court in the famous WILLIAM PENN; but no relief was given to prisoners under the laws against Protestant dissent. The Scottish Parliament enacted the penalty of *death* against any one who should preach in a conventicle, or even attend one in the open air; and the penalty was mercilessly enforced by the soldiers under Claverhouse.

James lost no time in taking vengeance on the authors of the Popish Plot. Titus Oates was brought to trial before Chief Justice Jeffreys for perjury, and sentenced to be degraded, pilloried, and whipped at the cart's tail from Aldgate to Newgate on one day, and from Newgate to Tyburn on the next, to imprisonment for life, and to exposure in

the pillory five times a year. The flogging was evidently meant to be fatal; but Oates bore the infliction, and survived to receive a pardon and a pension after the Revolution.

The king's first professions, and the power of the Court, had secured a most loyal Parliament, which granted James tunnage and poundage for his life, and duties on sugar and tobacco, making a revenue of 1,900,000*l.*; but they were suddenly called upon to provide new resources against an invasion and civil war.

From the moment of Charles's death, the English Whigs and Scotch Covenanters, who had found shelter in Holland, resolved to dispute the rights of James. A double invasion was planned; of England by the Duke of Monmouth, and of Scotland by the Earl of Argyle.

ARGYLE sailed first, with three ships, for the coast of Lorn, to raise his clansmen. But his plans were hampered by a divided council; his fleet was destroyed; and his followers dispersed during a night march on Glasgow. Argyle was taken in the disguise of a peasant, and beheaded at Edinburgh under his old sentence (June 30, 1685).

It was not till Argyle's enterprise had become hopeless, that MONMOUTH sailed from Amsterdam in a ship of 26 guns, with two smaller vessels, carrying equipments for the army which he hoped to raise in England. The Duke landed at Lyme Regis, in Dorset, on the 11th of June, with only eighty-three followers, and was received with cries of "A Monmouth! A Monmouth! The Protestant religion!" He published a declaration, claiming the crown as his birth-right, but leaving the decision to a free Parliament. The violence with which this paper attacked the "traitor, tyrant, assassin, and popish usurper, James, Duke of York," disgusted all men of station and influence. But the peasantry, and the clothworkers of the western towns, where dissent was strong and Monmouth popular, gave him in one day a force of 1500 men. The news of his landing reached London on Saturday, the 13th of June; and a Bill was hurried through Parliament, attainting Monmouth of high treason.

On Monday, the Duke of Albemarle (son of the famous Monk) met the rebels at Axminster with 4000 of the Devon militia. But many of them showed such unwillingness to fight against Monmouth, that Albemarle ordered a retreat, which became a hasty flight. Monmouth marched to Taunton, and his royal welcome there tempted him to the imprudent step of causing himself to be proclaimed as "King James II." At Bridgewater, Monmouth's army had grown to 6000 men ; many more had to be refused for want of arms, and many had no weapons but pikes and scythes.

On the other side the militia were gathering, and the regular troops were coming up from London. Their general, the Earl of Feversham, was irresolute and incapable ; but he had with him JOHN CHURCHILL,* in command of the Royal Blues. Monmouth fell back, though he had gained some success in a skirmish of cavalry ; and the news of Argyle's defeat made him utterly despondent. As a last hope, he led his army out of Bridgewater to a night attack on the camp of Feversham, on the great morass of *Sedgemoor*. The surprise failed, and when daylight showed the royal forces about to crush his ill-armed followers, Monmouth fled from the field (July 6). Having wandered for two days in the New Forest, the Duke was found hidden in a ditch, in the dress of a shepherd. He was taken to London, and carried into the presence of his uncle. After abject entreaties for his life, which James rejected with hardhearted coldness, Monmouth was beheaded at the Tower (July 15).

His followers were delivered up, first to military execution by the brutal soldiery of Colonel Kirke, and then to the more systematic vengeance of the law. CHIEF JUSTICE JEFFREYS was sent on his "Bloody Circuit" through the West, to earn the Great Seal from the King who spurred on the cruelty of his willing servant. About 330 persons were executed with all the barbarities of the law of treason ; and Jeffreys made the horrid boast, that he had

* This great general—best known by his later title of DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH—was born on June 24, 1650, and was now thirty-five years old.

hanged more traitors than all the Chief Justices since the Conquest. Many more were sentenced to merciless floggings and hopeless imprisonment; and between 800 and 900 were transported as slaves to the West Indies.

Jeffreys made a large fortune by trading in pardons; and the courtiers shared in the traffic. The queen herself had some of the prisoners given to her, not as Edward presented the burgesses of Calais to the womanly pity of Philippa, but for the profit of selling them into slavery. Her maids-of-honour were allowed to exact 2000 guineas for the pardon of some young ladies of Taunton (several of them mere children) who had obeyed their schoolmistress in presenting a flag to Monmouth. Throughout all, the king was deaf to every appeal for mercy. "His heart," said Churchill to a suppliant, laying his hand on the chimneypiece in the ante-room at Whitehall—"his heart is as hard as this marble."

Besides the executions in the West, some of the Whig merchants of London were marked for vengeance, on the charge of being parties to the Rye House Plot. Mr. Henry Cornish, who had been sheriff at the time of the Exclusion Bill (1679), was hanged and quartered in sight of his own house, and his head was set up over Guildhall. And, on the same day, Elizabeth Gaunt, a lady whose long life had been passed in acts of charity, was burnt alive at Tyburn. This last victim of the stake in England was brought there for giving shelter, from pure pity, to a fugitive from Sedgemoor, who earned his pardon by informing against his kind protectress!

Five days before these judicial murders, the doom of religious liberty was sealed in France by the *Revocation of the Edict of Nantes* (October 15, 1685).* It seemed as if James and Louis were about to root out all freedom alike from France and England. But the French Protestant exiles, who found a refuge in England, enriched our country with the fruits of their industry, especially in

* The Edict of Nantes, granting religious freedom to the Huguenots, had been published by Henry IV. of France in 1598. (See p. 167.)

the manufacture of silk ; and many of the names which stand highest amongst us in arms, commerce, arts, and letters, from that day to this, came over in that migration. Among the exiles was the Marshal *Duke of Schomberg*, who now took service with the Prince of Orange in Holland, and soon became his ablest general in the war with James II. Meanwhile, the course of Louis warned the loyal Protestant Cavaliers and Churchmen of England, of what they had to expect from James, if he once secured despotic power like that of the French king.

Nor did the king leave them in doubt of his intentions. He informed Parliament, on its reassembling, that he had increased the standing army, as the militia had failed in the late rebellion ; and that he had appointed some officers, whose fitness he knew, though they had not taken the Test. The contest which ensued was ended by a prorogation, and this only Parliament of James II. never met again. (It was dissolved on the 2nd of July, 1687.) The story of the following years is that of the struggle to bring England back to a Roman Catholic despotism, till the peaceful invasion of 1688 confirmed the great victory won over the repulsed Armada of 1588.

The king's chief reliance was on the *Dispensing Power*—that is, the supreme power of the sovereign to suspend laws on the plea of the public good—a power which had been often claimed, and as often resisted. Besides appointing officers who had not taken the Test, James granted dispensations to clergymen who had turned Romanists, to enable them to hold their livings. After James had made some changes on the Bench, the Twelve Judges affirmed the King's dispensing power (1686). Roman Catholics were appointed to the highest posts in the Universities ; and two bishoprics even were conferred on disguised Papists. Roman Catholic worship was openly restored, and several monasteries, and two Jesuit schools, were founded in London. The *Court of Ecclesiastical Commission* was revived, in defiance of its abolition by the Long Parliament and Charles I. Riots in London, against the re-

vival of Catholic rites, gave a pretext for forming a *Camp on Hornsloe Heath*, where 13,000 soldiers, with twenty-six guns, were placed under the command of Lord Feversham.

But even this camp partook of the spirit of the citizens, who were wont to visit it on holidays; and a tract was distributed among the soldiers, exhorting them to fight only for the Bible, the Great Charter, and the Petition of Right. The author, the Rev. Samuel Johnson, formerly chaplain to the famous Lord Russell, was sentenced to be degraded, pilloried three times, and whipped from Newgate to Tyburn. James replied to an entreaty for the remission of the flogging: “Mr. Johnson has the spirit of a martyr, and it is fit that he should be one.”

In the last days of 1686 and the first of 1687, James finally broke with the Protestant Tories by the dismissal of his brothers-in-law, the Earls of Clarendon and Rochester; and the government of Ireland was entrusted to Tyrconnel, for the purpose of rooting out Protestantism from the island, and of raising a force in that country, which might be used in coercing the Protestants of Great Britain. James had found out his mistake in thinking that the principle of non-resistance was stronger than that of patriotism among the gentlemen and clergy of England. So he made his appeal to the Covenanters and Nonconformists by a *Declaration of Indulgence*, first in Scotland and then in England. With a few exceptions, however, the Dissenters preferred the safety of their country to the doctrine of toleration; and they chose rather to suffer under the penal laws than to help on Catholic ascendancy under the name of liberty.

Meanwhile James gave a splendid public reception to the Papal Nuncio. The Fellows of Magdalen College, Oxford, were ejected for resisting the king's command to elect as their President a Papist, who had been expelled from the University for disgraceful conduct; and the College was made a school of Roman Catholic teaching. This act was an outrage on Church-of-England loyalty at its head-quarters.

All this was borne with more or less patience, in the hope of a Protestant succession to the Crown. James had two daughters. Mary, Princess of Orange, though childless, was only in her twenty-sixth year; and her sister, Anne, who was three years younger, had been married to the Protestant Prince George of Denmark, in 1683. At this critical juncture it was announced that the queen, Mary of Modena, was about to bear a child.* What if it should be a son and heir? It was needful at once to provide for a Regency; and preparations were made to pack a Parliament, which might also sanction the revolution in religion. But the spirit of the country gentlemen showed that the attempt must fail: the elections were postponed; and James decided on enforcing obedience to his mere will.

On the 22nd of April, 1688, he put forth a second *Declaration of Indulgence*, which was ordered to be read in all the churches, first of London and then of the country. Sunday, the 20th of May, was named for the first reading. On Friday, the 18th, the Primate, Sancroft, and six other bishops, presented a joint petition to the king. They professed their loyalty, and their desire for toleration; but they protested that they could be no parties to the reading of the illegal declaration in the churches under their oversight. The Declaration was read in only four London churches, and in them the people went out the moment its reading began. The like scenes were repeated in town and country on the following Sundays.

On the 8th of June, the Seven Bishops were brought before the Council, and sent to the Tower on a charge of Libel. The libel was their Petition: its publication was the act of presenting it to the king!

At the moment when James was committed to this decisive contest, the birth of his son removed the last argument for patience (Sunday, June 10). The child, who was destined to become in six months a life-long exile, was

* James's first wife, Anne Hyde, the mother of Mary and Anne, had died in 1671. In 1673 he had married Mary d'Este, sister of the Duke of Modena, whose five daughters all died young,

named JAMES FRANCIS EDWARD, and was created Prince of Wales. The people made the cause of the Seven Bishops their own ; and their acquittal by a jury at Westminster was hailed with shouts of joy even in the camp at Hounslow Heath (June 30). On that same day, an invitation was sent to William of Orange, signed by four Peers, besides the Bishop of London, and two Commoners. The Prince's preparations were soon known to Louis XIV., who warned James in vain. New affronts were offered to the Church and nation, and even to the army ; and Irish regiments were sent over to England by Tyrconnel.

At length one evening a letter arrived from the king's minister at the Hague, informing him that William was on the point of sailing. James turned deadly pale, dropped the letter from his hand, and sat for a time in stupid amazement. He suddenly began to make concessions, which were now all too late.

The Prince of Orange sailed from Helvoetsluys on the 19th of October, after putting forth a Declaration that he was coming at the head of a force sufficient to repel violence, with the sole object of having a free and legal Parliament assembled. A storm drove back his fleet ; and there followed twelve days of intense anxiety, while the people of England prayed for " a Protestant wind from the East."

On the 1st of November, the Prince sailed again ; and on the 5th of November, he landed at Torbay. The gentry came in from all quarters, to bring their promised support to William at Exeter. James was quickly deserted by his nephews, by the favoured Churchill, who had followed him to Salisbury with warm professions of loyalty, by Prince George of Denmark ; and finally by the Princess Anne. James heard the news of his daughter's flight on his return from his mutinous army. " God help me !" cried the wretched king ; " my own children have forsaken me."

While Halifax went to treat with William, James sent off the queen and infant prince from Gravesend to France (December 10). At three o'clock next morning, the king

himself fled secretly from Whitehall by a back door. While crossing over to Lambeth in a wherry, he dropped the Great Seal into the Thames; and he travelled on to embark in the Medway. That Tuesday, the 11th of December, 1688, is counted the last day of James II.'s reign.

THE INTERREGNUM.*

December 11, 1688, to February 13, 1689.

With the late breaking of that mid-winter morning, the king's flight became known. The army declared for the Prince of Orange, and the Lords and Bishops who were in London undertook the government till his arrival. London rose in riot. Romish chapels and monasteries were destroyed; and the houses of some of the Catholic ambassadors were sacked. The chief agents of James's tyranny fled; but Jeffreys, the most odious of all, was seized in an alehouse at Wapping, disguised as a coalheaver, and carried hardly alive into the Tower. The false alarm, that the disbanded Irish soldiers of Feversham were marching upon London, caused this stormy day to be followed by the long-remembered terrors of the "Irish night."

Next day, James was recognised and detained by some fishermen, who boarded his vessel off the eastern point of the Isle of Sheppey. Lord Feversham was sent down to rescue him, and he returned to Whitehall (Sunday, December 16). But William, who was now at Windsor, insisted on his departure; and on the 18th the fallen king left Whitehall again, and the Prince was welcomed to St. James's. On the following Saturday night, James stole away from Rochester; and the next morning he sailed out of the Thames, never to return to England. He landed at Ambleteuse on Christmas Day, and was received with unbounded generosity by Louis XIV. The splendid palace of St. Germain, near Paris, the birthplace of Louis himself, was given by him for the abode and royal court of the exiled Stewarts.

* This Latin word signifies an interval between two reigns.

CHAP. XXXI.—WILLIAM III. AND MARY II.

FROM FEBRUARY 13, 1689, TO MARCH 8, 1702.

WILLIAM: *Born*, November 4, 1650. *Reigned*, 13 years. *Age*, 52.MARY: *Born*, April 30, 1662. *Reigned*, 6 years. *Age*, 33.

Section I.—WILLIAM AND MARY, JOINTLY.

FROM FEBRUARY 13, 1689, TO DECEMBER 28, 1694.

On the morrow of that Christmas Day, upon which James landed in France, the Prince of Orange took on himself the government, by the desire of two councils of Lords and Commoners (December 26, 1688). For the second time within thirty years the estates of the realm were summoned in *Convention*,* to fill the vacant throne (January 22, 1689).

They resolved that James II. had abdicated the throne by endeavouring to subvert the Constitution, by breaking the *original contract between King and People*, and by withdrawing himself out of the kingdom. Some days later, they decided that the Prince and Princess of Orange should be declared King and Queen of England. But first they put on record the most essential rights of the subjects of the Crown, not as new claims extorted from the new sovereigns, but as those always possessed by the English people “*as their undoubted Rights and Liberties.*”

This statement was called a DECLARATION OF RIGHTS. It was afterwards converted into a Statute, called the BILL OF RIGHTS, which is justly regarded, after *Magna Carta* and the *Petition of Right*, as the third great charter of the liberties of England. The Declaration insisted on the points which had been violated by the late tyranny. It claimed the following rights: of petitioning the king; of carrying arms by Protestants; of freedom of elections to Parliament, and of debate in the same; of legal juries; and

* The difference between a *Convention* and a *Parliament* has been explained above, p. 213.

of frequent Parliaments. It was expressly in consideration of their assent to this Declaration, that William and Mary were pronounced King and Queen of England, France, and Ireland, on the 13th of February, 1689.* A new form of coronation oath was framed.

Throughout this proceeding, William had been supported by Mary in refusing anything short of a full share of the throne, with the chief direction of the government. The king and queen were to reign during their joint lives, and the survivor was then to reign alone. If they died without children, the Crown was to pass to Anne.

The oaths of allegiance and supremacy were taken by the great majority of the Peers and Commons; but they were refused by Archbishop Sancroft and seven other bishops. Five of the same seven prelates, who had been imprisoned and prosecuted for withholding the illegal acts of James, were (with their three brethren) suspended, and afterwards deprived of their sees, rather than deny his divine right. Their example was followed by a large number of the clergy, who were called *Non-jurors* from their refusal to take the new oaths.

The Convention, having declared itself a *Parliament*, settled on the king and queen a revenue of 1,200,000*l.*; half for the Army and Navy, and half for the other expenses of government, which were called the *Civil List*. Thus for the first time was introduced the great constitutional principle of *appropriating* the sums voted by Parliament to the purposes for which they are meant to be used.

This Parliament placed our *Standing Army* on a permanent footing by the first *Mutiny Act*. The immediate cause of this was accidental. The Revolution gave the signal for renewed war between Louis XIV. and the United Provinces; and England was bound by treaty to aid the Dutch. Among the troops ordered on this service was a Scotch regiment, which mutinied at Ipswich, and marched off for Scotland. William's Dutch troops were sent after

* The new line of sovereigns, like the Tudors and Stewarts, kept the empty title of "King of France," till it was dropped by George III. in 1801.

them : the mutiny was quelled without loss of life : and the Mutiny Act was passed, at first for six months ; but it has been since renewed year by year. It places the army under Martial Law.

Another great measure of this year was the *Toleration Act.* by which freedom of worship was granted to Protestant Dissenters, provided that they took the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and declared their assent to the doctrinal parts of the Thirty-nine Articles.

While English affairs were thus settled, civil war broke out in both of the sister kingdoms. The revolt of SCOTLAND against the tyranny of her own Stewarts had been more violent than that of England. A Convention of the Scottish Estates proclaimed William and Mary, and drew up a "Claim of Right," like the English Declaration, but demanding also the restoration of the Presbyterian Establishment. On these terms, the crown of Scotland was accepted by William and Mary in the Banqueting House at Whitehall (May 11, 1689).

As in the time of Charles I. and Montrose, the hatred of several highland clans to the House of Argyle enabled Claverhouse, whom James had created VISCOUNT DUNDEE, to gather the little force, whose fierce onset scattered the troops of General Mackay like chaff before the wind, at the *Pass of Killiecrankie*, in Athole. In the moment of victory, Dundee was waving his hat to cheer on his handful of horse, when a musket ball found out the opening under his breast-plate, and he fell into the arms of a soldier. "How goes the day ?" asked Dundee. "Well for King James, but I am sorry for your Lordship." "If it is well for him, it matters less for me," were the last words of the devoted loyalist, who had been the most cruel of persecutors (June 27, 1689). The loss of the battle of Killiecrankie was retrieved by the victory of Dunkeld (August 21); and the Highland clans dispersed to their homes.

The Battle of Killiecrankie was followed in three days by a double check to the Stewart cause in IRELAND. Tyr-

connel had prepared that island to be a refuge and separate kingdom for the exiled Stewarts, whence they might perchance regain Great Britain. The Protestants had been driven out of all the provinces except Ulster, where they found their last refuge in Londonderry and Enniskillen. When, therefore, James landed at Kinsale Bay, with a small force supplied by Louis XIV., he found himself at the head of an Irish army; and he proceeded at once to Dublin (March, 1689). He marched thence, and formed the memorable siege of Londonderry, which held out for 105 days, chiefly through the heroic efforts of a clergyman, named OBADIAH WALKER. The defenders were relieved by General Kirke, when at the last pinch of famine; and on the very same day, the Protestants of Enniskillen defeated the Irish at *Newtown Butler* (July 30).

Next spring, King William himself carried over a powerful army to Ireland. Landing at Carrickfergus, on the 14th of June, he met the army of James on the banks of the BOYNE. The battle fought at the passage of that river, on July 1st, 1690, was fatal to the cause of James, who returned to France. Only 500 men fell on the side of William; but among them were Marshal Schomberg and Obadiah Walker.

The Irish War was ended, in the following year, by the *Pacification of Limerick* (1619). The Irish Catholics were promised the free exercise of their religion; while those, who preferred to retire to the Continent, had the means provided by the Government. About 12,000 of their bravest men departed to serve under Louis XIV.; and the *Irish Brigade* proved their courage and their resentment against England in more than one fierce battle abroad.

The pacification of SCOTLAND, in the same month, was followed by the dreadful *Massacre of Glencoe*. Early in the year, the Highland clans, who were in arms for James, had received his permission to make terms with the Government; and William was advised that they might be quieted by dividing among them the small sum of 1500*l.* To hasten the work, execution by fire and sword was denounced

against all who should not have made submission by the last day of the year. Nor was this a mere threat; for the heads of the Scottish Government were eager to quell the wild lawless spirit of the Highland clans by a terrible example. All had the prudence to make their submission within the time, save the aged Mac Ian, the chief of the Macdonalds of Glencoe, a small clan of turbulent robbers.

At the last moment, however, Mac Ian took alarm, and came to Fort William on the 31st of December. But the oath could not be taken there; and Mac Ian travelled through storms of snow, over bogs and mountains, to the nearest magistrate at Inverary. He arrived on the 6th of January, 1692; and his prayers and tears prevailed on Sir Colin Campbell, the sheriff of Argyleshire, to administer the oath and report the case to the Council. Mac Ian returned home with a mind at ease. He had obeyed the law, but not within the time; and the penalty was exacted with a cruelty made doubly odious by treachery.

A party of 120 soldiers entered the wild valley of Glencoe, and were received without suspicion by Mac Ian and his tribe. Before daylight, on the 12th of February, the soldiers rose upon their friendly hosts, and slaughtered the old chief with about 60 of his tribe. The rest, about 150 in number, escaped before the arrival of another band of soldiers, who were to have guarded the passes; and many women and children perished in the winter snows of the dreary glen, which too well deserved its name; for *Glen-Coe*, in the Gaelic tongue, means “Valley of Tears.”

In England, meanwhile, the Jacobite spirit was gaining strength. The people resented the cold manners of the foreign king, and his fondness for his native land. They were jealous of the presence of his foreign troops, and of the wealth and honours which he showered on his Dutch friends. Many of the chief nobility and councillors were Jacobites* at heart; or, what was even more dangerous,

* This term, derived from *Jacobus*, the Latin form of *James*, denotes the partisans of the exiled Stewarts.

because less honest, they deemed it wise to render services to an exile, who might soon be their king again.

William valued his power as King of England most of all as the means of carrying on resistance to Louis XIV. For this purpose, as well as from love of his native land, he spent a large part of almost every year of his reign in the Netherlands. His first return to Holland was in January, 1691, to preside over a Congress of the powers leagued together against the ambition of Louis. Next year the French king made his most serious effort to restore James. The Irish under Sarsfield were united with 10,000 French troops in a camp at Cape La Hogue, on the coast of Normandy, ready to be carried over as soon as the fleet under De Tourville should have driven the English from the Channel. James himself came down to the camp, and issued a manifesto so violent and threatening, that the English Government were only too glad to publish it. Admiral Russell, who wished well to the Stewart cause, plainly told his Jacobite friends that he would resist a hostile invasion to the death. He read out, on board his flag-ship, the queen's solemn appeal to the honour of the officers, many of whom were known to be secret Jacobites; and they all signed an engagement to do their duty. And they did it, when they met the fleet of De Tourville in mid-channel, and after a five hours' fight drove it back to the coast of Normandy (May 19, 1692). The main squadron was destroyed by fire-ships in the bay of La Hogue, under the eyes of James himself.

In memory of this great *Battle of La Hogue*, Queen Mary resolved to give up her palace at Greenwich as a hospital for disabled seamen; and the splendid edifice, which Charles II. had begun to rebuild, was completed by William III. as a monument to his wife in 1696.

The expenses of the war now made it necessary to obtain credit on a larger scale than the loans which former kings had been wont to borrow from Jews, goldsmiths, and other moneyed men. An Act of Parliament, pledging the credit of the nation for a public loan of 1,000,000*l.*, is

generally regarded as the foundation of our NATIONAL DEBT (1693). Next year the expenses of the war required a new loan; to supply which the BANK OF ENGLAND was founded (1694).

The winter session of Parliament is memorable for the *Triennial Act*, which limited the duration of each Parliament to three years (1694).^{*} On the same day, on which the king gave his assent to the Bill, Queen Mary fell ill of smallpox, and she died on the 28th of December, 1694. She was buried with great state in Westminster Abbey, near her ancestress and namesake, Mary Stewart. William was overwhelmed with grief for her loss.

Section II.—WILLIAM III., ALONE.

FROM DECEMBER 28, 1694, TO MARCH 8, 1702.

The opening of William's sole reign was marked by the establishment of *Freedom of the Press*, the very mainspring of our free national life. Severe measures were taken against the gross corruption practised by public officers. The Speaker, Trevor, was obliged to put to the House a vote condemning himself for taking a bribe from the City of London. The war brought William solace in his greatest achievement, the recapture of Namur (September 1). On his return, he made a progress through the country, after Parliament was dissolved. The effect of the king's revived popularity was seen in the new elections, which returned a Whig majority to the *Third Parliament* of William (November 22). It passed a new *Treason Act*, giving the accused the aid of counsel and other safeguards for a fair trial. The old rule was restored, which required two witnesses to prove an act of treason.

The new Act came into force on the 15th of March, 1696, while the trials for a great plot against William's life were going on. The death of Mary had left William,

* The Triennial Act of William and Mary was repealed by the *Septennial Act* of George I. (1716), which is still in force.

in the eyes of the Jacobites, a mere foreign usurper. A scheme was formed for his assassination and for an invasion from France. James was privy to both parts of the scheme, and the Duke of Berwick (his natural son, and Marlborough's nephew) came over in the beginning of 1696 to concert measures with the English Jacobites. But, as they refused to rise until the French forces landed, Louis withdrew his support. The "Assassination Plot," however, went on. Sir George Barclay, a Scotch officer, who had served under Dundee, brought over from France a number of adventurers, besides soldiers of James's guard. In concert with the English conspirators, he laid a plan to waylay the king's coach at Turnham Green on the 15th of February; for it was William's habit to go that way every Saturday, to hunt in Richmond Park.

But the plot was betrayed, and measures were taken both against rebellion and invasion. Several of the conspirators were convicted, and eight were executed. Those who were left in prison (six in number), were detained there by successive Acts of Parliament passed under Jacobite alarms, till the last survivor, John Bernardi, died in Newgate after a forty years' captivity (1736). One of the chief conspirators, Sir JOHN FENWICK, against whom only one witness was forthcoming, was attainted by Act of Parliament and beheaded on Tower Hill (1697). The *Junto*, as the Whig leaders were called, were now at the height of their power; and the famous LORD SOMERS was made Lord Chancellor.

We pause here to record an event of more lasting interest than plots and party conflicts,—the Act of the Scottish Parliament, providing *Schools for every parish in the Kingdom*. It took nearly 180 years for England to follow the example.

By this time Louis was weary of the war, which had reduced France to exhaustion and misery. He consented to recognize William as King, and to give no countenance to any attempts of James against him. After long delays from the allies, the PEACE OF RYSWICK was signed on the

11th of September, 1697. A public thanksgiving for the peace was the first service held in Wren's new cathedral of St. Paul, which had been thirty years in building (December 2).

The peace involved William in a contest with Parliament about the maintenance of the army, which the Tory opposition succeeded in cutting down to 10,000 men (1697). The next Parliament insisted not only on a further reduction of the army, but also on the dismissal of all William's foreign troops. After threatening to go back to Holland himself, William yielded; and his Dutch soldiers departed with the wives and children whom many of them had got in England (1699). The good-natured people, who owed them much, parted with them in kindness; though some remarked that "Hans had a much better figure than when he came over first." "A pretty figure you would have made," said a Dutch guardsman, "if we had not come over."

Next year the Parliament forced William to dismiss Lord Somers (April 27, 1700), and to give the Tories the chief weight in his councils, with GODOLPHIN as First Lord of the Treasury. There was a Tory majority in William's *Fifth Parliament*, which met on the 6th of February, 1701. ROBERT HARLEY, the Tory leader in the late Parliament, was chosen Speaker, and impeachments were set on foot against Somers, and the other chief Whig ministers, for their share in the Partition Treaties, which have presently to be mentioned. William's great Dutch friend, Bentinck, Duke of Portland, was also impeached. But this party violence provoked a protest in the famous *Kentish Petition*, followed by the *Legion Memorial*, which declared that "Englishmen are no more to be slaves to Parliament than to Kings." The latter paper was written by DANIEL DEFOE, the author of 'Robinson Crusoe.'

But English party spirit is ever subject to patriotism; and this Parliament performed the great work of securing English liberty and law at home by the famous *Act or Settlement*, which provided for the Protestant succession

to the Crown, on conditions securing the rights of the people. The Princess Anne had just lost the last of her children, WILLIAM, DUKE OF GLOUCESTER, at the age of eleven (July 30, 1700). A successor was sought among the nearest heirs who were Protestants; and William's choice had fallen on SOPHIA, the daughter of ELIZABETH, daughter of James I., and the unfortunate Elector Palatine. Sophia was now in her seventieth year, and had married the Duke of Brunswick, who had become Duke and Elector of Hanover. This title had descended, in 1698, to their son, George Louis, afterwards George I. Parliament settled the Crown of Great Britain and Ireland on the Electress Sophia and her descendants, *being Protestants, to the exclusion of all other persons whatsoever*, in case of the death of William and Anne without issue. The securities for the liberties of England, embodied in the Act, were similar to those in the Bill of Rights; but others were added as safeguards against dangers from a foreign dynasty. Some of these were afterwards repealed; but the foundation of all is expressed in the words, "the laws of England are the birthright of the people thereof."

After giving his assent to the Act of Settlement, and proroguing Parliament, William went to his native land for the last time, and formed the *Grand Alliance* of England and Holland with the Empire, Denmark, and Sweden, against the ambitious schemes of Louis XIV. (September 7, 1701). The Austrian line of Spanish kings, which began with Charles I. (the Emperor Charles V.), had ended with the imbecile and childless Charles II. in 1700. In prospect of his death, William had tried to prevent new dangers to Europe by two *Partition Treaties*, made with Louis XIV. of France; and he had thereby incurred odium in England. But Louis was resolved to obtain the Spanish Crown for his great-grandson Philip, who was proclaimed, on the death of Charles, as PHILIP V. of Spain (October 21, 1700). Louis declared, in his farewell address to his grandson, "The Pyrenees exist no longer." The Emperor protested, and his younger

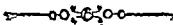
son, the Archduke Charles, assumed the title of King CHARLES III. of Spain, as heir of the Austrian line.* Thus began the fierce and famous *War of the Spanish Succession*, which lasted for twelve years.

England had not yet declared war; but Marlborough was appointed to command her forces, and a fleet was fitted out under Admiral Benbow. At this very moment, Louis took the one step which was needed to rouse the whole spirit of the British people. Only nine days after the signing of the Grand Alliance, James II. died at St. Germains; and Louis at once recognized his son as King James III., and promised him his support.

The crisis was wisely chosen by William for an appeal to the people; and his *Sixth Parliament* met on the 30th of December, 1701. To the king's solemn appeal, that they would lay aside their "unhappy, fatal animosities, and disappoint the only hope of their enemies by their unanimity," they responded by a vote of soldiers, seamen, and money. They passed a Bill for abjuring "the pretended Prince of Wales," and attainted him and all his adherents of treason.

But William only just lived to give his assent to the Bill. He had now grown so weak that he was obliged to be lifted on the back of a favourite sure-footed horse, to enjoy his accustomed Saturday's hunt at Hampton Court. On the 21st of February, the horse caught its foot in a mole-hill; the king was thrown, and broke his collar-bone. The shock proved fatal to his feeble frame; but, before danger was apprehended, he sent his last message to Parliament, expressing the earnest hope that he might live to see a union between England and Scotland. He died on Sunday, the 8th of March, and was buried by the side of Mary in Westminster Abbey.

* To explain the complicated nature of these claims, is quite beyond the scope of this work.



CHAP. XXXII.—ANNE STEWART.

FROM MARCH 8, 1702, TO AUGUST 1, 1714.

Born, February 6, 1665. *Reigned*, 12½ years. *Age*, 49½.

THE younger daughter of James II., who was named after her mother, Anne Hyde, had been brought up in the Protestant faith by Bishop Compton. She was steadfast through life to High-Church principles of religion, and to the Tory party in politics. This was the one point on which she withheld the influence of Lady Marlborough. To get rid of courtly distance between themselves, Anne used to address Lady Marlborough as *Mrs. Freeman*; and she desired “her dear friend” to call her *Mrs. Morley*.

But the queen was no mere puppet in the favourite’s hands. Like all the female sovereigns of England, Anne was regular in attending to state business. Her goodness of heart often supplied the want of brighter parts, and endeared her to her people. Her husband, PRINCE GEORGE OF DENMARK, a weak, coarse, and indolent man, was a mere cipher in the state. He died in 1708, deeply mourned by Anne, who had nursed him affectionately to the last.

Besides the defence of the Protestant succession against her half-brother and the Jacobites, William had bequeathed to Anne two great objects of policy. These were the war with France and Spain, and a Union with Scotland. Both were adopted by Anne, and recommended by her to Parliament. Marlborough was immediately appointed Captain-General of the Forces, and war was declared with France and Spain on the 4th of May. Marlborough’s great friend, LORD GODOLPHIN, was made Lord High Treasurer. Parliament renewed the Civil List of 700,000*l.* for the queen’s life; but Anne at once gave up a seventh part to the public service of the year.

Marlborough had already gone to the Netherlands, to begin those *ten campaigns*, which placed him at the head of all modern generals, till the age of Napoleon and Wellington. Of him alone it has been said, that he never

besieged a fortress which he did not take, never fought a battle which he did not win, and never conducted a negotiation which he did not bring to a prosperous end; but it cannot be added, as was said of Wellington, that he never lost a gun. There is another contrast in the military careers of the two great Dukes. Wellington ended his at Waterloo at the age of forty-six; Marlborough was already fifty-two, when he was appointed by the States of Holland "Generalissimo" of their forces. His success in this first campaign, against the French on the Lower Rhine, won for him the Dukedom of Marlborough. We must be content to follow only the greatest of his deeds upon the Continent. Their fruit would have been fuller and more speedy, had he not been always hampered by the slow and cautious Dutch.

On the sea, general misfortune was redeemed by an act of heroism, which is famed among the stories of our navy. ADMIRAL BENBOW, with seven ships, fell in with a French fleet of fifteen sail, sent to escort the Spanish treasure-ships from the West Indies. Four of his captains disobeyed the signal to pursue; and the Admiral, with only one ship beside his own, carried on a running fight for six days. Benbow kept the deck, with one of his legs shattered by a chain-shot: "I had rather (said he) have lost them both than have seen this dishonour brought upon the English nation." Before dying of his wounds, at Kingston in Jamaica, he had the coward captains brought to trial, and two of them were shot.

The autumn of 1703 was marked by the tempest called the "Great Storm," which raged over the south of England for a week (November 26th to December 1st). Twelve ships of the royal navy were lost at sea, with 1500 sailors, and the new lighthouse on the Eddystone rock was washed away. On the land, above 800 houses were blown down, and 123 persons killed by their fall. The loss of property was reckoned at 1,000,000*l.*

It was with great despondency that Marlborough opened what was destined to prove his most glorious campaign.

Louis XIV. had formed a plan for crushing the imperial army on the Danube, and the Duke resolved to transport his English and Dutch forces to the heart of Germany. We cannot stay to trace the masterly moves on both sides, which brought Marlborough, and his worthy comrade in arms, PRINCE EUGENE OF SAVOY, face to face with Marshals Tallard and Marsin and the Elector of Bavaria, on the little river Nebel, which flows into the Danube near Höchstadt, in Bavaria.

The village of BLENHEIM,* the key of the French position, gave its name to one of the most complete victories on record; a victory won as much by Marlborough's daring courage as by his perfect generalship (August 2, 1704). The battle was decided by a charge of horse, led by the Duke in person against the French centre, cutting their line and driving their cavalry into the Danube. There still exists a leaf, which Marlborough tore from his pocket-book at the crisis of the battle, and sent off to the Duchess with these words, in pencil: "I have not time to say more but to beg you will give my duty to the Queen and let her know her army has had a glorious victory. Monsieur Tallard and two other generals are in my coach and I am following the rest . . . MARLBOROUGH." Eugene, on the right, had a harder struggle; and Marlborough wrote, "Had the success of Prince Eugene been equal to his merit, we should in that day's action have made an end of the war."

The Queen and Parliament united in granting to Marlborough the royal manor of Woodstock, on which the splendid palace of *Blenheim House* was built at the public cost. The manor was settled on the Duke and his heirs for ever, on condition of their rendering to the sovereign at Windsor, on the 2nd of August in every year, a banner painted with three flowers de luce, the armorial bearings of France (January 1705). The flag is hung in the armoury of Windsor Castle; and opposite to it hangs the French

* Let the teacher explain the campaign on the Map. It is absurd for British children to read of Blenheim as a mere name.

tricolor rendered by the Duke of Wellington for the manor granted as the reward of Waterloo. The Emperor, too, gave Marlborough an estate in Bavaria, and made him a Prince of the Holy Roman Empire.

But the *Rock of Gibraltar* is a still more imperishable monument of British gains in this memorable year. A small expedition, under Sir George Rooke and the Prince of Hesse, had failed to effect a landing in Catalonia, on the north-east coast of Spain, where the people had risen, because they were deprived of their old local rights. The Admiral and Prince were returning through the Straits, when they resolved to make an attempt to take the fortress of Gibraltar, which stands on a rock, impregnable by nature, but then carelessly guarded. The Spaniards, not content with their ordinary negligence, left their posts to keep a saint's day; the English sailors scaled the rock, and Sir George Rooke took possession of the fortress in the name of Anne, ten days before the battle of Blenheim (July 23, 1704). The Prince of Hesse, who was left to garrison the place, was attacked by the French fleet and a Spanish army. But he held out through the winter; and, on the return of spring, Sir John Leake not only relieved Gibraltar, but almost destroyed the French fleet in a brilliant naval action (March 24, 1705).

In this summer, Marlborough performed one of his most brilliant deeds of skill by forcing the lines which Marshal Villeroi had drawn from Antwerp to Namur (July 18). It was only the opposition of his Dutch colleagues that hindered the victor of Blenheim from meeting the army of Villeroi on the field of Waterloo.

But the great interest of the war, this year, lies in the chivalrous feats of Charles Mordaunt, EARL OF PETERBOROUGH, in Spain. He was sent with a fleet under Sir Clowdesley Shovel, to escort the Archduke Charles to Spain. They had besieged Barcelona for three weeks, and orders were already given to re-embark, when Peterborough, by a daring and secret stroke, surprised a fort

which commanded the city. The result was the surrender of Barcelona, and the acknowledgment of "King Charles III." through all Catalonia and Valencia (October, 1705). These provinces were lost by Charles two years later; but the details of the war in Spain are too intricate to be followed in our present history.

Meanwhile the Whigs, who supported Marlborough and Godolphin in maintaining the war, had gained greater influence in the ministry, and obtained a majority in the *Second Parliament* of Anne, which met on the 25th of October. The party conflict was now inflamed by the new cry, "The Church is in danger."

The ensuing campaign in the Netherlands is famous for a victory, only second in brilliancy and completeness to that of Blenheim, which Marlborough gained over Marshal Villeroi at RAMILLIES, near Tirlemont (Sunday, May 12, 1706). Out of about 60,000 men on each side, the French lost 15,000, and the allies had only 1000 killed and 2500 wounded. The most important cities of the Spanish Netherlands were soon won, and Charles III. was acknowledged by the estates of Brabant.

We have now reached the great and happy event of the UNION OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND into the one KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN under the same Parliament and Government. The proposal had been made by James I. exactly a century before; but neither nation desired it in the least. The conflicts of the Stewart age brought the two kingdoms to open war; and the brief union under Cromwell was one enforced by conquest. The Revolution raised new hopes of the Union, which William urged with his dying breath. But the old jealousy between Scots and English was strong and bitter. There was a strong Jacobite feeling among the higher classes in Scotland; and, on the other hand, the Presbyterians were afraid of being brought under the High-Church government of England. It was the very violence of these jealousies that at last made the Union necessary. The attempt of the Scots to separate the crowns forced the kingdoms to unite.

Articles of Union were agreed upon by commissioners of both kingdoms, and enacted by the two Parliaments ; and on the 1st of May, 1707, England and Scotland (henceforth called North Britain) became the “United Kingdom of Great Britain.” The chief terms of the agreement were the following. The *Crown* was to be inherited according to the English *Act of Settlement*. The existing *Church Establishment* of each nation was secured by clauses in both Acts. The *Parliament of the United Kingdom* was to be upon the English model. Sixteen Scottish peers, elected for life by their peers, were added to the House of Lords ; and forty-five members were to be elected by Scottish constituencies to each new House of Commons.* Each country was to preserve its own laws and customs, except as Parliament should otherwise determine ; and all rights of citizenship, trade, and free intercourse were made equal to the natives of both lands. Both were to bear the same customs' duties and other taxes, and to have one coinage and one National Debt. The “Union Flag” of James I., combining the red cross of St. George with the white cross of St. Andrew, was made the national flag by proclamation (July 28).

The smaller country was long jealous of the loss of her separate rank and legislative power. Vulgar prejudice traced every new disaster to the Union, and fondly regretted the loss of blessings which had never been possessed. Such feelings died away with time and experience ; and left an inexpressible gain in prosperity, wealth and strength, mental as well as physical, as the fruit of the long deferred union of two lands, which nature has made one, and to which immemorial usage had given the name of BRITAIN.

For the present, however, the Jacobite feeling in Scotland was inflamed by discontent at the Union ; and Louis XIV. enabled the PRETENDER† to make another attempt on North Britain. But the plan had oozed out ;

* The number of Scotch members was increased to 53 in 1832, and to 60 in 1868.

† This was the term applied in public documents to James Francis Edward Stewart, son of James II., who called himself James III. He was also called by the neutral title of the *Chevalier de St. George*.

and, when James sailed from Dunkirk in March, with only five ships, he came in sight of the English fleet of sixteen sail, under SIR GEORGE BYNG, off the Firth of Forth. The French admiral, intent only on getting safe home, carried the Chevalier back to Dunkirk against his will. The attempt called forth a display of patriotic resistance, like that against the Armada; and overcame, for the time, the queen's favourable feeling towards her brother (1708).

In the same year Marlborough won the *Battle of Oudenarde*, in Flanders, the third of his great victories (July 11, 1708). In this battle, George, the Electoral Prince of Hanover, fought on the English side, and the Pretender on the side of the French.

Another great success of this year was the capture of MINORCA, with its great harbour, *Port Mahon*, the finest in the Mediterranean, by General Stanhope (September); and the title of *Viscount Mahon*, which he afterwards received, has derived new honour from the labours of his descendant, as the historian of this age. Prince George of Denmark died this autumn (October 28, 1708).

The winter is memorable for the *Great Frost*, which set in on the 5th of January, 1709. The terrible destruction of vines, corn, and fruit-trees, which brought famine upon France—already at the lowest point of exhaustion through war and extravagance—quickened the desire of Louis for peace. But, when he was required to aid in expelling his grandson from Spain, Louis said to his Council, “If I must wage war, I would rather wage it against my enemies than my children.”

Marshal Villars met Marlborough and Eugene in the terrible *Battle of Malplaquet*, near Mons, the most bloody and least decisive of the Duke's four great victories (September 11, 1709). The loss of the Allies was so heavy that Marshal Villars wrote to Louis, “If God in his goodness should vouchsafe to us to lose such another battle, your Majesty may consider your enemies annihilated.”

The war at home between the Whig principles of the Revolution and the Tory doctrine of non-resistance was waged in the pulpit as well as the press and Parliament. In 1709 Dr. HENRY SACHEVERELL preached and printed two sermons, denouncing any resistance to tyranny, and all toleration of Dissenters, and still more of "false brethren" within the Church and in the high places of the State. Among the latter, he made a personal attack on Godolphin, under his nickname of *Volpone*, "the Old Fox." Against the advice of Somers and Marlborough, the Government brought the matter before the House of Commons, who impeached Sacheverell before the Lords for "malicious, scandalous, and seditious libels" (December 13, 1709).

The trial began in Westminster Hall on the 27th of February, 1710. The popular Doctor was escorted to and from by a mob, which maltreated all who would not swell their cry of "Sacheverell and the Church for ever!" The crowd surrounded the queen's sedan-chair, as she went privately to hear the trial, shouting, "God bless your Majesty and the Church! We hope your Majesty is for Dr. Sacheverell!" A small majority of the Peers sentenced Dr. Sacheverell to be suspended from preaching for three years, and ordered his sermons to be burnt by the common hangman. This almost nominal punishment was hailed with wild rejoicings as a real triumph for the Doctor and the High-Church party.

For some years past, the yoke of "Mrs. Freeman" had grown insufferable to "her faithful Morley" (as the queen was wont to sign herself). The place of the Duchess as favourite had been taken by her own cousin, the gentler *Abigail Hill* (Mrs. Masham), whom she had introduced at court. Mrs. Masham, who was also the cousin of Robert Harley, intrigued on behalf of the Tories; and the Duchess had made an imperious demand for her dismissal. But the outburst of Tory feeling in the country enabled Anne to dismiss at once the discarded favourite and the Whig ministers.

On the 6th of April, the Duchess of Marlborough had her last interview with the queen; and she was dismissed from all her offices at the beginning of the next year. Meanwhile the changes in the ministry were completed by the dismissal of Godolphin, with thanks for his services, and a pension of 4000*l.* a year (August 8). ROBERT HARLEY, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, became the real head of a thoroughly Tory Cabinet. He was soon after made EARL OF OXFORD and Lord High Treasurer. HENRY ST. JOHN (who was soon made VISCOUNT BOLINGBROKE) was Secretary of State, an office which gave him the chief management of foreign affairs; and he was prepared to use it in the interest of France and the Pretender. Parliament was dissolved, and the new elections returned a Tory House of Commons.

Just as this *Fourth Parliament* of Anne met, peace was hastened on by the new turn of the war in Spain, where the Allies had a bright gleam of success, followed by utter ruin. Count Stahremberg (the imperial commander) and General Stanhope gained two brilliant victories at *Almenara* and *Zaragoza*, and "Charles III." entered Madrid (September, 1710). But, to use the words of Stanhope, "the inhabitants seemed very sorry to see us there." Marshal Vendôme was sent to the aid of Philip, who re-entered the capital, from which Charles had fled. During the retreat of the Allies, the left wing under Stanhope was forced to capitulate at *Brihuega* (December, 1710). Thus the Spanish part of the question was already decided by the fate of war, when the death of the Emperor JOSEPH I. called away his brother to seek the Imperial Crown, which he obtained as CHARLES VI. (October 12, 1711).

The new Ministry had begun secret negotiations for peace, with a duplicity intended to hoodwink both the English people and their Allies. At length the announcement of the intention to open conferences at *Utrecht*, in Holland, provoked a storm of discontent. Marlborough, who had just returned from his last brilliant campaign in Flanders (October 1710), joined the Whigs in a plan to overturn

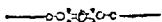
the Government. The Ministry, defeated in the House of Lords, brought forward a charge against Marlborough, of corruption in his office of Captain-General; and the Duke was dismissed from all his employments, “that the matter might have an impartial examination.” The Duke of Ormond was appointed to succeed Marlborough in the Netherlands, but with secret orders to remain on the defensive (January 1, 1712).

After long negotiations and secret intrigues, the PEACE OF Utrecht was at last signed on the 31st of March, 1713. Of its details we need only say that the first object of contention—the Spanish Netherlands—was given to the Emperor: the crown of Spain and the Indies was secured to Philip V., on condition that it should never be united with that of France: the Emperor retained his conquests of Lombardy, Naples, and Sardinia: and the Duke of Savoy received Sicily, which was afterwards exchanged for Sardinia. Thus was the Empire of Spain partitioned. Great Britain obtained from Louis the withdrawal of his support of the Pretender, the cession of *Acadia* (the name of which was changed to *Nova Scotia*), *Newfoundland*, and the island of *St. Christopher* (or *St. Kitts*) in the West Indies; while Spain ceded to her *Gibraltar* and *Minorca*. Marlborough left England before the peace was concluded, sorrowing for the death of his friend Godolphin. He fixed his abode at Antwerp, to be ready for a call, whether to save his country, like another William, or, as some feared, to play the part of another Monk.

For it was then suspected, and is now well known, that Bolingbroke’s eagerness to conclude the peace was part of a scheme for the restoration of the Stewarts. Harley’s influence in the government was now entirely overshadowed by Bolingbroke, whose plans were warmly supported by the Duke of Ormond. The old officers of William and Marlborough were got rid of; and Ormond was made Warden of the Cinque Ports, the ancient bulwark against an invader. These schemes met with a check from the *Fifth Parliament* of Anne (February 16, 1714), which

proved to be of the character called “Hanoverian Tory.” But its High-Church zeal enabled Bolingbroke to aim a heavy blow at the Protestant Dissenters by his *Schism Act*, which happily never came into force.

The prorogation of Parliament was followed by Bolingbroke’s great stroke for the power to execute his plans. On Tuesday, July 27, the queen in Council stated her grievous complaints against Harley, and, after a long altercation, he gave up the white wand of Lord Treasurer. But the blow recoiled on its author. The queen’s agitation brought on an attack of apoplexy (July 30). The Whigs were better prepared than Bolingbroke. The Dukes of Somerset and Argyle suddenly appeared at the Council, and proposed that the Duke of Shrewsbury should be recommended to the queen for the vacant office of Lord Treasurer. Anne roused herself from her dying stupor, to deliver to him the white wand, with a command to use it for the good of her people. Next morning she sank back into an unconscious state, and she died at seven o’clock on the morning of Sunday, the 1st of August, 1714. She was buried in Henry VII.’s Chapel at Westminster. The danger averted by her death may be summed up in the words of Bolingbroke (applied in a very different spirit):—“The Earl of Oxford was removed on Tuesday—the queen died on Sunday! What a world is this, and how does Fortune banter us!”



CHAP. XXIII.—THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK OR HANOVER.

GEORGE I.

FROM AUGUST 1, 1714, TO JUNE 11, 1727.

BORN, May 28, 1660. REIGNED, 13 years. AGE, 67.

THE Electress Sophia, grand-daughter of James I., had died at the age of eighty, less than two months before Queen Anne (June 8, 1714). So her rights under the Act of Settlement devolved upon her son, George Louis, the Elector of Hanover. According to the Regency Act of 1705, the Elector had named eighteen persons to govern till his arrival, as Lords Justices, with the seven officers of State named in the Act. The list included the chief Whig leaders, but the name of Marlborough was absent. The Duke returned to England on the very day of Queen Anne's death, and was received with enthusiasm.

On the same day the new Lords Justices caused King GEORGE I. to be proclaimed. The people shouted "Long live King George!" "Liberty and Property!" and the Pretender was burnt in effigy. The seals of office were taken from Bolingbroke; and the proud lord might be seen waiting at the door of the Council chamber to deliver up his papers to JOSEPH ADDISON, the famous essayist, who was appointed secretary to the new Government. Parliament renewed the Civil List at 700,000*l.*; and offered a reward of 100,000*l.* for the capture of the Pretender, in case he should attempt to land. George I. was at once acknowledged by all the powers, France included.

The king landed at Greenwich on the 18th of September; accompanied by his son, George Augustus, who had already been made Prince of Wales. George I. was now fifty-four years old, having been born the day before the restoration of Charles II. He was utterly wanting in all graces of person and manner, and he was unable to speak English. He was slow and cold; but good-tempered,

kind, honourable, and constant to his friends. He paid diligent attention to public business, and was strictly economical both of time and money.

In the late war, though too slow for a good general, he had shown military skill and personal bravery; but his peaceful policy was that which England now needed. The circumstances of his accession made it natural for him to give all his confidence to the Whigs. It is from the coming-in of a foreign king, who had the good sense to know his unfitness for personal rule, that we may date the full establishment of government by responsible ministers. It should be added that George I., like William III., was always glad to escape to his native home; and scarcely a year of his reign was passed without a visit to Hanover.

The new Ministry was formed chiefly from the younger members of the Whig party. The great office of Lord High Treasurer was put in commission; and it has never since been revived.* The real prime minister was CHARLES, VISCOUNT TOWNSHEND, who was made Secretary of State, with GENERAL STANHOPE as second Secretary and leader of the House of Commons. MARLBOROUGH was restored to the post of Captain-General; in which he had to organize the defence against a Jacobite invasion, for which he had himself lent money to the Pretender! The DUKE OF ARGYLE was made Commander-in-chief for Scotland, where he had soon work enough prepared for him.

Within a month of the death of Anne, the Pretender had issued another manifesto, in which he declared that he had waited patiently till his sister's death, "of whose good intention towards us we could not for some time past well doubt." The new and thoroughly Whig Parliament, which met on the 17th of August, declared it their business "to trace out those measures, whereon he placed his hopes, and to bring the authors of them to condign punishment." Bolingbroke at once fled to France;

* The *First Lord of the Treasury* is the head of this Commission, and is now always Prime Minister. But at that time the chief Secretary of State was often the Prime Minister,

and he was impeached of high treason, with Oxford and Ormonde. The Duke also fled, after some hesitation, but Oxford was committed to the Tower (July 9). Acts were passed attainting Bolingbroke and Ormond; but Oxford was only brought to trial two years later, at his own request, and he was acquitted on a point of form (1717). These impeachments caused tumults in some parts of the country; and Parliament passed the *Riot Act*, authorizing the use of force for dispersing unlawful assemblies, after a magistrate has read a warning, which is commonly called "reading the Riot Act."

Meanwhile Bolingbroke had gone to the Jacobite court in Lorraine, and was appointed Secretary of State to "James III." Louis XIV., while refusing open aid to the Chevalier, had helped him secretly to fit out a small expedition at Havre; when all was changed by the death of the "Grand Monarch," at the age of seventy-seven, after a reign of seventy-two years (1715). Well might Bolingbroke write, "My hopes sunk as he declined, and died when he expired."

Louis was succeeded by his great-grandson, Louis XV., under the regency of PHILIP, DUKE OF ORLEANS, grandson of the brother of Louis XIV. The Regent at once sought the friendship of England, and reversed the policy of Louis XIV.; and his minister, the Abbé Dubois, received a pension from the English Government. On the representation of the British ambassador, the Earl of Stair, the ships at Havre were disarmed. But a premature explosion of the Jacobite plot had already taken place in Scotland. The Earl of Mar had slipped away from London in disguise; and gathered the Jacobite chiefs in Braemar on pretence of a hunting party (August 26). On the 6th of September, he proclaimed JAMES the Eighth of Scotland and the Third of England at Carmichael. As the royal standard was lifted up, a sudden gust of wind carried away the gilt ball from the top of the flagstaff, and the Highlanders shuddered at the omen. Perth was seized by a body of rebels without opposition; but Mar's movements

were checked by the failure of a daring plan to surprise the Castle of Edinburgh. At the end of September, Argyle arrived in Scotland to take command of the 1500 regular troops stationed at Stirling. This small force sufficed to keep Mar in check at Perth, with his 12,000 men, who were chiefly Highlanders.

By this time another insurrection had broken out in England. Parliament had consented to the arrest of six Jacobite members of the Commons, one of whom was MR. FORSTER, member for Northumberland, and a Protestant. Rather than submit to arrest, Mr. Forster and the young EARL OF DERWENTWATER took up arms. They gathered a body of about 300 horsemen among the Jacobite gentlemen of the north, and proclaimed James III. They were joined by about 200 Scotch horsemen under LORD KENMURE, and afterwards by 1400 infantry, whom Mar had sent across the Firth of Forth under an able soldier, Brigadier Macintosh. After some purposeless movements, they took post at *Preston* in Lancashire, and there surrendered at discretion to General Carpenter (Sunday, November 13).

On the same day, Mar, who had at length ventured to move out from Perth, met Argyle on the field of *Sheriffmuir*, near Dumblane. In the battle which followed, each commander routed the wing opposed to him; but Mar at last retreated, leaving Argyle in possession of the battle-field. The Highlanders melted away from Mar's camp at Perth, while Argyle kept watch at Stirling over the passage of the Forth, which, says an old Scotch proverb, "bridles the wild Highlandman."

And now that his cause was lost, for this turn at least, the Chevalier made his appearance on the scene. He got away from Dunkirk in a small ship, with only six friends, and landed at Peterhead (December 22). But his gloomy temper chilled the spirit of the Highland gentlemen, as much as the small remnant of their force disheartened him. James was persuaded to fly, in the hope that his followers would obtain better terms. He embarked secretly with

Mar at Montrose on the 4th of February, 1716, and landed at Gravelines within two months of his leaving France. He vented his disappointment by the dismissal of Bolingbroke, "the only Englishman" (said James's brother, Marshal Berwick) "able to manage his affairs."

Most of the Highland chiefs escaped abroad, and their followers returned to their homes, leaving only the noblemen and gentlemen taken at Preston for the Government to make examples of. Lords Derwentwater and Kenmure were beheaded on Tower Hill (February 24). Lord Nithsdale, who was to have suffered with them, had been rescued from the Tower, the night before, through the heroic devotion of his wife. Forster and Macintosh also escaped. Several of the convicted leaders were reprieved; and of the common followers only four were hanged in London and twenty-two in Lancashire. Harsh as were some of these proceedings, they form a striking contrast to the Bloody Circuit of Judge Jeffreys.

One result of this rebellion was the repeal of the Triennial Act of 1694, by the *Septennial Act* of 1716,* to prevent the risking of a general election, at the time of a Jacobite ferment. The danger was greater as the king had become unpopular, chiefly through the favours heaped on Hanoverians. At this juncture, the jealousy between the king and the Prince of Wales had led to divisions in the ministry. Townshend was dismissed; and Stanhope became Prime Minister.

The ambitious minister of Spain, Cardinal Alberoni, was now reviving the schemes of Philip II. His preparations for the conquest of Sicily led to the conclusion of the *Quadruple Alliance* of England, France, Holland, and the Empire (1718). The Spaniards had taken Palermo and Messina, when an English squadron, which had been sent out under Sir George Byng, encountered the Spanish fleet off *Cape Passaro* (the S.E. corner of Sicily). The result is described in Captain Walton's

* This law, which is still in force, enacts that a Parliament cannot sit more than seven years. In practice very few Parliaments last so long.

report of his part of the action :—“Sir,—We have taken and destroyed all the Spanish ships which were upon the coast, as per margin” (August 11, 1718).

Alberoni now invited the Pretender to Madrid, and prepared a fleet to carry over armies for the invasion both of England and Scotland. But a great storm scattered this new Armada in the Bay of Biscay. The war was going against Spain in all quarters, when Stanhope and Dubois demanded the dismissal of Alberoni. Philip V. not only consented, but himself joined the Quadruple Alliance (1721).

Meanwhile Stanhope had carried the repeal of Bolingbroke's shameful *Schism Act* (1718); and he would have repealed the Test and Corporation Acts, and even the Catholic disabilities. But this was not to be till after another century. The king and the Prince of Wales had now for some time come to an open quarrel, and the Whigs feared that the Prince, on coming to the throne, might destroy their majority in the House of Lords by creating New Peers. Stanhope therefore proposed the *Peerage Bill*, to limit this prerogative of the Crown. Twice in 1719 the Bill passed the Lords, but it was rejected by the Commons, after a splendid speech against it by Robert Walpole.

Next year the nation was convulsed by the wide-spread ruin caused by wild speculation in the shares of the *South Sea Company*. This was a body of subscribers, who took upon themselves a certain portion of the National Debt; and obtained in return the privilege of trading to the Spanish coasts of South America. The trade was scarcely carried on at all, but thousands rushed to buy a share in the promise of untold wealth from the gold mines of the Indies. Companies innumerable were formed for objects, some good and some ridiculous, but all designed only for gambling in the shares. In August the 100*l.* shares in the stock of the South Sea Company were sold for 1000*l.*; in September they fell to 17*5l.*, and they were soon nearly worthless.

The wide-spread ruin, caused by “the bursting of the bubble,” provoked charges against the Government of helping to puff it up, and even of taking bribes from the Directors. A Committee of Enquiry was appointed by Parliament, and some of the real offenders were punished. Stanhope, while defending himself against an attack made on him in the House of Lords, was so agitated that he was seized with a fatal stroke of apoplexy, and died (1721).

SIR ROBERT WALPOLE,* as First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, was now undisputed Prime Minister; and he preserved his power, and the ascendancy of the Whig party, for the unexampled term of one-and-twenty years (1721–1742). His financial skill restored the shaken public credit.

On the 16th of June died the famous Duke of Marlborough, after six years spent in the state described by Dr. Johnson among the examples of the “Vanity of Human Wishes” :—

“From Marlborough’s eyes the tears of dotage flow.”

He was buried with great pomp in Westminster Abbey. We have recorded his great deeds and his deep treacheries, the fruit of a self-seeking ambition. His unbounded command over his fellow-men was due, not more to his intellect and never-failing judgment, than to his unruffled sweetness of temper. The enormous wealth he left sustained that charge of avarice, of which the historian would gladly say, with Bolingbroke, “He was so great a man, that I had forgotten he had that fault.” The Duchess Sarah survived till 1744.

The confusion caused by the South Sea Panic tempted a new attempt of the Jacobites. Their “Council of Five”—of which Bishop Atterbury was the soul—formed a plot to seize the Tower and the Bank, while James and Ormond were to come over from Spain. The Government were warned by the Regent Orleans. Atterbury was banished by an Act of Pains and Penalties (1723). On

* The title, by which Walpole is best known, was obtained when he was made a Knight of the Bath, on the revival of that order in 1725.

the very day that the Bishop was put on shore at Calais, Bolingbroke arrived there on his return to England. He had now received a pardon ; but it was only in 1725 that an Act of Parliament restored him his fortune, but not his place among the Peers. Bolingbroke formed a coalition against Walpole with WILLIAM PULTENEY (afterwards Earl of Bath), the greatest orator of the day, and Walpole's former friend. The new allies called themselves the "Patriot Party," and made frequent attacks on the minister in their paper, 'The Craftsman.'

Meanwhile another famous attack had been launched at Walpole from the pen of JONATHAN SWIFT, the Tory Dean of St. Patrick's, Dublin, and the author of 'Gulliver's Travels.' A patent had been granted to a Mr. Wood for striking a new copper coinage for Ireland. The coins were finer, but somewhat lighter, than the English, on account of the different value of copper in the two countries. This was called by the Irish Parliament and people a robbery of the country.

Swift, who cared not a "Wood's halfpenny" for the merits of the matter, seized the occasion for an attack on the Ministry, in his 'Letters of M. B., a Drapier (*i.e.* Draper), of Dublin.' The draper, "a poor ignorant shopkeeper, utterly unskilled in law," is made to prove such universal loss from "Wood's halfpence," that the people would soon have no meat to feed them, unless they could eat brass as the ostriches do iron, and the very beggars would be ruined. At last the Government were obliged to yield, and Wood was compensated with a pension for the loss of his contract (1724).

In 1727, the king started for his summer trip to Hanover; but he had scarcely crossed the German frontier, when he was seized in his coach with apoplexy, and died on the following day (June 11, 1727). He was buried at Hanover; but he left a name among the kings of England, which deserves honour for a government suited to the spirit of the country, and to its position at a dangerous crisis.

CHAP. XXXIV.—GEORGE II.

FROM JUNE 11, 1727, TO OCTOBER 25, 1760.

Born, October 30, 1683. *Reigned*, 34 years. *Age*, 77.

THE second king of the House of Hanover was in his 44th year when he succeeded to the British throne. His eldest son, FREDERICK LOUIS (born 1707), who was now 20 years old, was created Duke of Edinburgh, and afterwards Prince of Wales. The king's second son, WILLIAM AUGUSTUS (born in 1721),—acquired an evil fame (worse probably than he deserved) as the DUKE OF CUMBERLAND.

George II. resembled his father in his good sense, his love of justice, his attention to business, and his obstinacy. He carried saving to the extreme of avarice, and was subject to violent bursts of anger. He spoke English fluently, though with a German accent. His want of culture was shown in his dislike of “boots and bainters;” but, like all his race, he was passionately fond of music. The genius of GEORGE FREDERICK HANDEL (besides its far higher uses) celebrated the exploits which proved the king's courage and skill in war.

As Prince of Wales, George II. had been in opposition to his father's government, and he was quite ready to supersede Walpole. But the king's narrow personal views were kept in check by the sound judgment of Queen Caroline, who influenced all his measures, and governed during his frequent absences in Hanover. The queen kept Walpole in office, and supported him till her death in 1737.

Walpole obtained from Parliament an increase of 130,000*l.* a year to the Civil List, besides a jointure of 100,000*l.* a year for the queen. Peace was made with Spain by the *Treaty of Seville*. The firmness of Walpole, even against the wish of the king, secured peace for the first twelve years of George II. At a time when war was raging on the Continent Walpole could say, “There are 50,000 men slain this year in Europe, and not one Englishman.”

During this period of peace, Great Britain advanced in industry and wealth with a steadiness unknown since the Restoration.

Walpole effected a great reform in the Customs' Duties. But he received a severe check in attempting to convert the duties on wine, tobacco, and other articles, into *Excise Duties*. His object was to cure an immense amount of smuggling and other sorts of fraud. But the people hated the very name of Excise, and Walpole was forced by a storm of indignation to withdraw his measure (1733).

The *Porteous Riots* at Edinburgh—the story of which must be left for reading in the vivid pages of Sir Walter Scott—deserve special attention on two grounds. Their chief source was the practice of smuggling, common in both countries, but in Scotland fostered by the people through hatred of the equal duties imposed by the Union. The vindictive proceedings of the Government and Parliament gave a fresh blow to the wavering loyalty of the Scotch towards the House of Hanover. Queen Caroline, who was then Regent during the king's absence in Hanover, received a pointed warning from the Duke of Argyle. Enraged at the outbreak as a special insult to her authority, she threatened to turn Scotland into a hunting-ground. "If it please your Majesty"—said the Duke—"I will go down to my own country and get my hounds ready" (1736).

These disturbances, and the king's continued absence in Hanover, had made the Crown very unpopular, when fresh scandal was given by bitter quarrels in the royal family. For reasons still unknown, FREDERICK, PRINCE OF WALES, had been disliked from childhood by both the king and queen. He had grown up a weak, vain, and dissolute young man, and had followed his father's example in seeking popularity as patron of the opposition party. Now, at the age of twenty-nine, he was married to the Princess Augusta of Saxe Gotha (1736). The proceedings of Parliament on this occasion were

young orator, WILLIAM Pitt,* a cornet of dragoons, for which he was deprived of his commission at the end of the Session.

Next year Queen Caroline died, having with her last breath recommended the king to the care of Walpole. The tender grief of George II. for the queen gave him for some time a popularity he had never had before. A brighter hope rose upon the people within a year, in the birth of a son to the Prince of Wales, GEORGE AUGUSTUS, who was destined to be the first native English king of his line as GEORGE III. (1738).

The time had now come when Walpole's peace policy must yield to one of those bursts of impatience, which have often urged the English people to war. The national feeling, handed down from the days of Elizabeth, that adventurers had a natural right to a share of Spanish commerce in the West, had grown with the growth of the British settlements in North America. The Spanish coast-guard ships claimed the right of searching vessels on the open seas for smuggled goods, and English blood was roused by many acts of outrage, without caring about the provocations given by British subjects.

A certain Captain Jenkins, who had been treated with great cruelty when his ship was boarded in 1731, produced at the bar of the House of Commons the ear which had been torn from his head, and which he had kept wrapped up in cotton in a box for seven years! He was undoubtedly put forward by the war party, and some said that his ear had been cropped off at the pillory. Be this as it may, "the fable of Jenkins's ear" put the torch to the pile of provocation; and Walpole made the great mistake of his life in being driven to war rather than give up office.

The declaration of war with Spain, on the 19th of October, 1739, was hailed with enthusiasm; and the capture of *Portobello*, on the Isthmus of Panama, by the Tory Admiral Vernon, was counted a triumph over Walpole

* Afterwards the famous Earl of Chatham.

as well as the Spaniards (November 22). But the boast was soon checked by the failure of Vernon before *Cartagena*, on the neighbouring coast of New Granada (April, 1740). The more lasting praise of heroic endurance was earned by the British navy in the expedition which COMODORE GEORGE ANSON led out, in 1740, against the Spanish settlements on the Pacific shores of South America, and from which he brought back one of his six ships, the *Centurion*, in 1744. Anson's story of his voyage round the world, with its episode of Byron's adventures in the *Wager*, are among the most romantic chapters in the annals of the British navy.

Meanwhile the contest with Spain was merged in the greater *War of the Austrian Succession* (1741–1748). On the 31st of May, Frederick William I., the second king of Prussia, was succeeded by his son, Frederick II., who was soon to be known as **FREDERICK THE GREAT**. On the 20th of October, the death of the Emperor Charles VI. left the kingdom of Hungary and his other hereditary dominions to his daughter MARIA THERESA, who was married to Francis, Duke of Lorraine. The Elector of Bavaria laid claim to the chief part of the Austrian dominions; and Frederick led an army into Silesia. The British Parliament voted a subsidy of 300,000*l.* to Maria Theresa, whose cause was taken up enthusiastically by the people. The danger of the queen of Hungary, pressed at once by Prussia, Bavaria, France, and Spain, roused the war feeling in England to its height, and Walpole became more and more unpopular. On the 1st of February, 1742, he resigned office; and he was presently created Earl of Orford. When Pulteney took his seat as Earl of Bath four months later, Walpole said to his old friend and rival, “Here we are, my Lord; the two most insignificant fellows in England.” Walpole died three years later (March 18, 1745).

The new chief minister, **LORD CARTERET**, encouraged the king's passion for martial fame. On the 19th of June, George II. joined his army in Germany, with his second

son, the Duke of Cumberland; and on the 29th he won the great *Victory of Dettingen* over the French. This was the last battle in which an English king has commanded in person.

The French and Spanish Bourbons now drew closer together by the treaty of perpetual alliance made at Fontainebleau (October, 1743). Louis XV. resorted to the old means of attacking England by a Jacobite invasion, under Marshal Saxe and Prince CHARLES EDWARD STEWART, the elder son of James (born 1721). The father and son were now distinguished as the "Old" and "Young" "Pretender" or "Chevalier."

France declared war; and next year England received a severe check in Flanders by the defeat of the Duke of Cumberland at *Fontenoy*. But her honour was redeemed by the heroism of the column of British infantry, which marched right round the French line, and retired in unbroken order, when forced back by the overwhelming numbers of the French guards and the Irish brigade (August 11th, 1745).

This battle not only gave Flanders to the French, but it had the more serious effect of reviving the spirits of the Jacobites, abroad and at home. It was now that "the Young Chevalier" embarked on that enterprise, which had such brilliant, though but momentary success; which began by shaking the Hanoverian throne to its foundation, and ended in settling that throne on a firm union of all Britain. He landed in the western highlands of Inverness (on the 25th of July, 1745) with but seven followers, of whom the only man of note was the Marquis of Tullibardine.

The Adventurer, who risked the cause of his family and his own life on this chivalrous attempt, was now twenty-four years old. His figure was tall and active; with a handsome face, fair complexion, and blue eyes, and hair which fell in curls about his neck. His manner was dignified, affable and winning; and his courage was quickened by a romantic sense of honour. His education

had been grossly neglected ; but his ill-written and ill-spelt letters breathe a spirit of energy and affection. He had been trained in the bigoted notions of the Stewarts ; and, like all that unhappy house, he regarded no service done for him as anything but his just due. His youthful vivacity was dashed with the melancholy temper of his race, and the spirit that bore him on to success became desponding in adversity.

The first reception of Charles Edward by most of the Highland chiefs showed more prudence than loyalty ; but the scale was turned by the brave decision of Evan Cameron of Lochiel. The standard of red silk, with a white space in the centre for victory to fill up with a motto, was raised in Glenfinnan on the 19th of August. Next morning, the Chevalier began his march, with scarcely more than 1600 Highlanders. George II. was still in Germany, and the Government was taken by surprise. There were only 3000 troops in Scotland, of which some 1400 lay at Stirling under Sir John Cope, who might have guarded the passage of the Forth, like Argyle in 1715. But, on advancing, according to his orders, to crush the rebellion in the bud, he grew alarmed at the spirit of the Highlanders in his army, and at the news of the gathering of the clans around the Prince. So he turned off to Inverness to rally the loyal clans, and left the southward road unguarded. The advisers of Charles Edward seized the opportunity, and made a dash for the capital of Scotland. Perth was entered on the 3rd of September ; the Forth was crossed on the 11th ; and, on the 17th, the Prince's army marched into Edinburgh, and "King James VIII." was proclaimed at the High Cross.

At the same time, Cope, having discovered his error and brought back his army by sea, was landing at Dunbar, whence he marched for Edinburgh on the 19th. Charles Edward came out to meet him on the 20th, and in the gray mist of the following morning the regular troops of Cope were scattered by one fierce charge of the Highlanders at *Prestonpans*, or, as the Prince's followers called

the battle-field, *Gladsmuir*. On the next day Charles Edward returned to Edinburgh, his banner now bearing the proud motto, *TANDEM TRIUMPHANS*, “At last in Triumph.” He held a splendid court at Holyrood for six weeks, receiving and arming the followers whom success gathered round him. But his little army lay idle, while the king’s troops held Edinburgh Castle, and the Lowlands showed scarcely a sign of rising in his favour.

When King George returned to England on the 31st of August, he found vigorous preparations already set on foot. An army of 10,000 men was at Newcastle under General Wade; the Duke of Cumberland gathered another in the Midland counties; the Militia were called out; and noblemen volunteered to raise regiments. Parliament voted supplies and suspended the *Habeas Corpus Act*.

On the 1st of November, the Pretender’s army of about 6000, of whom 500 were cavalry, began their march towards Cumberland, to avoid General Wade. On the 13th, Carlisle and its castle were surrendered by the cowardly mayor. Amidst the reluctance and quarrels of the Highland chiefs and the desertion of their followers, they were led on by the indomitable spirit of the Prince, who marched on foot at the head of the column in Highland costume, till Derby was reached on the 5th of December. But the forces gathering round them on all sides made it madness to go forward; and the few recruits, even from Jacobite Lancashire, proved that a popular rising was hopeless. The desire of Charles to give battle to the Duke of Cumberland was overruled by a council of war; and the retreat was begun before daybreak on the 6th. The Highlanders gave vent to rage and lamentations, and the Prince, who had always been the first on foot in the advance, showed his moody displeasure by being the last to leave his quarters every morning, and then riding off to the front.

The English armies gathered in pursuit. A successful skirmish of the rearguard, under Lord George Murray, near Penrith, enabled the rebel army to cross the border in safety. They reached Glasgow on Christmas Eve,

and Stirling on the 3rd of January, 1746. Here the various bodies of insurgents rallied round the Prince, raising his army to 9000 men. Meanwhile, the Duke of Cumberland, after retaking Carlisle, was recalled to provide against an expected invasion from France. His successor, General Hawley, marching to the relief of Stirling, was defeated by Charles Edward in the *Battle of Falkirk* (January 17), and he retreated in disorder to Edinburgh. The Duke of Cumberland now returned in haste. At his approach, the Highland host raised the siege of Stirling and retired to Inverness (February). On *Culloden Moor*, to the east of that city, was fought the decisive battle, which finally wrecked the hopes of the house of Stewart (April 16, 1746). The Duke of Cumberland sullied his victory by the cruel executions, which fixed on him the nickname of "The Butcher."

The unfortunate Prince escaped from the field, to pass through a series of adventures more romantic than those of his great-uncle after Worcester. One of the brightest passages of his story is the heroic devotion with which Miss FLORA MACDONALD aided his escape in a female disguise to the island of Skye, and claimed for him the protection of the wife of the hostile chief. This lady entrusted him to the care of a clansman, of whom a pleasant story is told. In crossing a brook, Charles Edward managed his petticoats so badly, that Macdonald exclaimed, "Your enemies call you a *Pretender*, but if you be, I can tell you, you are the worst of your trade I ever saw."

At length, after lying hid in caves and thickets, sometimes within sight of the hostile sentinels; in the den of robbers, who were too loyal to earn the price set on his head, and who one day brought him a pennyworth of gingerbread as a choice dainty; the adventurer re-embarked in a French ship at the very spot where he had landed fourteen months before; and, sailing through the English fleet in a fog, he reached the coast of France near Morlaix (September 29). The fond remembrance, which he left among the Highlanders, is still sung in the exquisite Jaco-

bit Ballads—some thrilling with martial fire and patriotic devotion, some deeply plaintive, and others keenly comic—but all telling how

“Charlie is my darling: the young Chevalier.”

But he lived from his 25th to his 67th year, without doing anything worthy of this early promise, and sank at last into the slough of drunkenness. He died in the 100th year from his grandfather's expulsion, and in the year before the great French Revolution (January 31, 1788). His father James had died in 1765. His younger brother, Henry Benedict (born 1725), took orders and lived at Rome as “Cardinal York,” receiving a pension from George III. The inscription on his medal “HENRY IX. by the Grace of God, *not by the will of men*,” confessed the true ground of the rejection of the royal line, which ended with his death in 1807.

The vengeance taken on the rebels of 1745 was greater and less necessary than that after 1715. The golden rule, that examples should be made of the leaders and mercy shown to their ignorant followers, was not observed this time, though there was still no approach to the “Bloody Assize” of Jeffreys. No less than eighty executions took place, with all the barbarities of the law of treason. As in 1716, most of the chieftains escaped; and only three noblemen remained to be tried by their peers—the Earls of Cromarty and Kilmarnock, and Lord Balmerino. The first was pardoned, from compassion for his wife; the other two were beheaded on Tower Hill (August, 1746). The same fate finally overtook the old intriguer, Simon Fraser, Lord Lovat, whose features still live in his wonderful portrait by Hogarth, in our National Portrait Gallery (1747).

Together with the pretensions of the Stewarts, the Rebellion of 1745 put an end to that lawless independence of the Scottish Highlands, which formed the last hindrance to the full union of Great Britain. Acts were passed to disarm the Highlanders, to abolish the patriarchal jurisdiction of their chiefs, and to forbid the wearing of the

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Highland dress. But the most effective measure was the penetration of the Highland glens and mountains by the military roads, commemorated in the couplet :—

“ If you’d seen but these roads before they were made,
You’d hold up your hands and bless General Wade.”

While men who “had been out in the ’45” were still living, those roads gave constant passage to Englishmen, seeking the pleasures of the eye and the imagination, in the land of deserts and thieves at which their fathers had shuddered ; and the great-grandson of George II. held his court at Holyrood in the proscribed Highland garb, which had been worn by Charles Edward in those halls.

The defeat of Fontenoy, followed by the Highland Rebellion, had made the British Government eager for peace ; and the powers of Europe, worn-out by the war, joined in the *Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle*, on the terms of a general restitution of conquests. So ended the *War of the Austrian Succession* (1748).

In 1751, FREDERICK, PRINCE OF WALES, died suddenly at the age of forty-four (March 20, 1751). He was buried without royal state ; and almost the only sorrow shown for his death was by the father with whom he had always been at variance.

The year 1752 was marked by the great *Reform of the Calendar*, or *Style* (as it is called), which brought the British reckoning of time into harmony with nature and the usage of most European States. Our year of 365 days, with one day added every fourth year (Leap Year) is a trifle more than the true length of the year, as marked out by the sun. But this trifle had, in course of time, mounted up to an error of eleven days. These eleven days were struck out, by reckoning the day after the 2nd of September as the 14th of the same month ; and a rule was made for avoiding the error in the future.* The

* The Rule is, to drop 3 days in every 400 years, in the following manner : Every fourth year is a Leap Year of 366 days ; and the Leap Years are those, the numbers of which can be divided exactly by 4, like 1872, 1876, 1880. Of course, the last year of every century can always be divided by 4.

beginning of the year was fixed at January 1 instead of March 25, as before. The ignorant mob went about rioting, with the cry, "Give us back our eleven days!" This change in the "Style" shows what is meant by the "Old Michaelmas," "Old Christmas," and so forth, which are still used as legal terms in the country.

The New Calendar happens to mark a new age in our politics. The violence of party conflict was let loose by the sudden death of HENRY PELHAM, who had been prime minister (except for short intervals) since the fall of Walpole (March 6, 1754). "Now I shall have no peace," said the king; and the prophecy was soon fulfilled both at home and abroad. The DUKE OF NEWCASTLE, who took upon himself his brother's office, was a weak and incapable intriguer, and quite unable to govern the rivalry of the younger statesmen. Foremost among these were HENRY FOX, WILLIAM Pitt, and WILLIAM MURRAY, who were afterwards famous as Lord Holland, the Earl of Chatham, and Chief Justice the Earl of Mansfield. Murray was the only man of real power, on whom Newcastle could rely in the House of Commons.

On the 8th of April, Parliament was dissolved; and another was returned of the same politics. The elections are memorable for the vivid pictures left by the great painter, Hogarth, of the bribery, drunkenness, and rioting, which have only been abated in our own time. Nor is the quaint lesson out of date, of a mob pulling down the sign of the CROWN, while a man lies out upon the bar from which it swings, and saws it through between himself and its support, so that he must fall with it. It was in the ensuing session that Pitt rose to the height of that

(100, 200, and so on); but the new rule is, that *only those century-years are Leap Years which can be divided by 400*. Thus 1800 was not a Leap Year, nor will 1900 be one, but 2000 will be a Leap Year; so will 2400, 2800, 3200, and so on; but not the hundredth years between them.

The corrected Calendar, or "New Style," is called *Gregorian*, because the correction was first made by Pope Gregory XIII. in 1582; and it was quickly adopted by the Catholic States in Europe. The "Old Style" is still used in Russia; and the difference is now 12 days. For example, the 1st of October in Russia is the 13th of October with us.

marvellous eloquence, which we only know by the thrilling effects it produced on those who heard it.

While Europe was again rent by the rivalry of Austria and Prussia, France and England had come to blows in the far West and the far East—both in America and India.

The part of North America, which is now the British colony of Canada, was then French; and the states of America along the eastern seaboard were British colonies. These colonies—then occupying but a strip of land between the Atlantic and the virgin forests and hunting-grounds of the Red Indians—extended from the border of *New Brunswick* to that of *Florida*, which belonged to Spain. Glancing at them in geographical order, the Stewart age had seen the settlement or conquest of the *New England States*, *New York*, *New Jersey*, *Pennsylvania*, *Delaware*, *Maryland*, *Virginia*, and the two *Carolinas*, to which *Georgia* had been lately added, by the philanthropist, General Oglethorpe (1732). These thirteen colonies, though including great varieties of race, politics, and religion, were already united by commercial interest, by their English language and institutions, and by a firm loyalty to the British crown.

Disputes about commerce and fisheries had caused frequent quarrels between the French and English colonists, which had broken out into serious hostilities. The French had established themselves on the southern shore of *Lake Erie*, and pushed over the watershed to the river *Ohio*, up the course of which the Virginian colonists advanced from the other side; each nation building itself a fort. In the collision which took place in 1754, a part was borne by GEORGE WASHINGTON, then twenty-two years old, as a major of the Virginian Militia. Next year a force was sent out from England under General Braddock, with whom Washington again served. But Braddock, despising the advice of the colonial officers, fell into an ambush of Indians in the French service, where half his men were lost and he himself was mortally wounded (July 9).

In 1756 the French struck a great blow in the Medi-

terranean.. An expedition sailed from Toulon in April, and landed 16,000 troops in Minorca, a month before the arrival of the British fleet under Admiral John Byng, on the 19th of May, 1756. Two days later, the French fleet offered battle ; and Rear-Admiral West had begun a spirited attack, when Byng declined to advance for fear of breaking his line. The French admiral sailed away out of sight, and Byng returned to Gibraltar. The fort of St. Philip, the only defence of Port Mahon, surrendered, and Minorca was lost to England. Byng was superseded, and sent home a prisoner, amidst a storm of public indignation. He was brought to trial at the end of the year, and shot on the quarter-deck of the "Monarque," dying with the calm courage which had failed him in the battle.

As soon as the landing in Minorca was known, war was declared against France (May 27). On the first day of the same month, a treaty was signed at Versailles between France and Austria against Prussia. The kings of Sweden and Poland joined the coalition against Frederick the Great, who this time found an ally in England, though against the inclination of King George. Thus began the SEVEN YEARS' WAR, which lasted into the reign of George III.

The disasters in America and Minorca, and the removal of Murray from the House of Commons, on his becoming Chief Justice, broke up the Ministry ; and the Duke of Devonshire became Premier, with Pitt as Secretary of State (November, 1756). But the king, encouraged by Newcastle and urged by the Duke of Cumberland, suddenly dismissed Pitt and his chief friends (April, 1757). They became at once the idols of the people ; and no new ministry could be formed. The return of WILLIAM Pitt to office, as Secretary of State, with the Duke of Newcastle as only nominal premier, began the brilliant period of "*Mr. Pitt's Administration*" (June 29, 1757). "The Great Commoner," who was now forty-eight years old, had the full management of the war and of foreign affairs.

A week before he took office, the great battle was fought, from which is dated the establishment of the *British Empire in the East Indies*. The new ocean path to India, laid open by the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope in 1498, had been followed in succession by the Portuguese, the Dutch, the English, the Danes, and the French. The East India Company, first chartered by Elizabeth in 1600, established a factory at *Surat* in 1612. MADRAS, on the Eastern or *Coromandel Coast* of the peninsula, was colonized in 1640, and was made the first seat of government, or *Presidency*, in 1652. In 1662, the island of BOMBAY, on the Western or *Malabar Coast*, was acquired as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza, and it was granted to the Company in 1668. In 1698, the Company purchased from AURUNGZEBE, the greatest of the Mogul sovereigns of India, a small territory at the mouth of the river Hooghly, including CALCUTTA, and there they built *Fort William*.

Thus a company of traders, under successive charters from the Crown, ratified by Parliament, possessed and governed these three commanding points in the North and East and West of India. Each was governed by its *President*, who was responsible to the Company, and defended partly by a small English force, but chiefly by native troops in the Company's pay, who were called *Sepoys* (the Hindoo word *Sipahi*, meaning "soldier").

Meanwhile the *French East Indian Company*, formed under the auspices of Louis XIV. in 1664, founded its chief settlement of *Pondicherry*, about 100 miles south of Madras, and that of *Chandernagore*, a little above Calcutta, on the opposite (or right) bank of the Hooghly. Such near neighbourhood was the sign of a rivalry, which was sure to become hostile.

In the war which broke out between the English and French, ROBERT CLIVE, who was a clerk in a merchant's office at Madras, entered on his military career. At the age of twenty-five, he formed the daring scheme of seizing Trichinopoly; and, with only 300 Sepoys and 200 Euro-

pean soldiers, the young captain entered the city of 100,000 inhabitants without resistance. In a small ruined fort, he withstood a siege by 10,000 Indian troops for fifty days; till, after the repulse of a desperate assault, the besiegers retired (1752).

Clive was appointed governor of Fort St. David in 1756, and arrived on the very day on which Fort William was stormed, and Calcutta taken, by SURAJAH DOWLAH, the ruler of Bengal under the Great Mogul (June 20, 1756). On the following night was acted the fearful tragedy of the *Black Hole of Calcutta*. The captured British garrison of 145 men, with one woman, were shut up through the burning midsummer's night, in a den 18 feet long by 14 wide. When it was opened in the morning, 123 were found to have perished, amidst unspeakable horrors of thirst, fever, and delirium. Only 23 came forth—"the ghastliest forms that were ever seen alive."

The news reached Madras in the middle of August, and the Presidency entrusted the work of recovery and revenge to Clive. With only 900 Europeans and 1500 Sepoys, Clive sailed to the Hooghly, and easily retook Calcutta (January 2, 1757). We cannot stay to trace the ensuing intrigues, which proved Clive to be utterly unscrupulous as to keeping faith with the native princes, and which ended in the famous *Battle of Plassey*. There, on the 23rd of June, 1757, Clive, with 2000 Sepoys and 1000 British troops, utterly defeated the 35,000 cavalry and 15,000 infantry of Surajah Dowlah. The victory, gained with such a disparity of force, impressed the natives with that sense of invincible might, which at once laid the moral foundation of the British empire in India; and the rivalry of the French was brought to an end by the capture of Pondicherry (January, 1761).

In North America equal glory attended the British arms. The recapture of Cape Breton by a fleet, with which Brigadier JAMES WOLFE served as second in command of the troops, designated him as the fit leader for the grand scheme which Pitt was now preparing. Wolfe was ap-

pointed to command an expedition against Quebec, the capital of Lower Canada. His army of 8000 men sailed up the St. Lawrence, and disembarked on the Isle of Orleans, opposite Quebec, at the end of June, 1759. Here Wolfe saw the city towering above him, on the precipitous heights formed by the point of land between the St. Lawrence and its tributary, the St. Charles. The MARQUIS OF MONTCALM, with 10,000 men, occupied what seemed an impregnable position outside of Quebec. The ridge of rocks, on which Quebec stands, is continued westward in the "Heights of Abraham." Wolfe formed the daring scheme of scaling these heights in the night, and so turning Montcalm's position. At one o'clock on the morning of September 13, the troops were carried in boats to the place now called *Wolfe's Cove*. As they floated with the tide, Wolfe repeated Gray's 'Elegy' to his officers; and, pausing on the line,

"The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

he added, "Now, gentlemen, I would rather be the author of that poem than take Quebec." By one narrow path the troops gained the table-land, and were drawn up in line of battle at daybreak. The brave Montcalm, taken by surprise, led his men out of the entrenchments, saying, "If I must fight, I will crush them." The decisive battle which followed cost the lives of both generals. Wolfe, carried mortally wounded from the field, heard an officer exclaim, "They run!" "Who run?" asked the dying general. "The enemy!" "Then God be praised!" said Wolfe, "I shall die happy;" and with these words he expired, at the early age of thirty-three. Quebec capitulated on the 18th of September; and the conquest of Canada was completed in the following year (1760). The successes of 1759 were crowned by several naval actions on the coast of France, the chief of which was the great victory of Sir Edward Hawke in *Quiberon Bay*.

Nothing of moment has to be recorded in the last year of George II., who died suddenly by the bursting of his heart, on the 25th of October, 1760.

CHAP. XXXV.—GEORGE III.

FROM OCTOBER 25, 1760, TO JANUARY 29, 1820.

Born, June 4, 1738. *Reigned, 59½ years. Age, 81½.*

Part I.—1760–1789, INCLUDING REVOLT OF AMERICAN COLONIES.

BOTH the reign and the life of George III. are the longest as yet recorded of any British sovereign. He lived above fourscore years, and reigned nearly threescore. This eventful period is divided in the middle by the great epoch in the history of Europe and the world, formed by the French Revolution of 1789.

George III. was only in his thirteenth year when his father Frederick died. The young Prince of Wales was brought up by his mother, the Dowager Princess, a woman of sense and spirit, but affected by her late husband's hostility to the king and his Whig ministers. Her favourite counsellor, John Stuart, EARL OF BUTE, imbued her son with the idea, that a king of England ought to govern according to his own notions, and not merely by the advice of his ministers. This view suited the young king's liking for business, as well as his strong and obstinate will.

Though very imperfectly educated, George III. had great natural good sense. His desire to do right was so honest, that he made a conscience even of the wrong which he mistook for right. His religion was free from all suspicion of hypocrisy; and not even scandal cast at him any charge of vice. The seclusion, in which his mother had kept him from the profligate society of those times, gave him habits almost too homely for a king, and narrowed his influence over men. But his pure life and simple tastes endeared him to the people, whose affection for his person was never forfeited by all the errors of his government.

The princes of the House of Hanover had till now been foreigners, with not much to respect or love in their character or manners. But George III. was in the bloom of youthful manhood ; pleasing in his person, kindly in spirit, and affable in address ; and he was the first of his line who could use the words, put by his own hand into his first speech to Parliament : “Born and educated in this country, *I glory in the name of BRITON.*” George III. was married, within a year, to the Princess CHARLOTTE of Mecklenburg, whose character and simple tastes resembled his own ; and the king and queen were crowned a fortnight later (September, 1761).

Before this, the king had made Lord Bute a Secretary of State, without consulting Pitt. France made overtures for peace, while Pitt struck new blows to secure good and lasting terms. The three Bourbon powers, France, Spain, and Naples, joined in the *Family Compact*, guaranteeing each other’s dominions against all enemies. Pitt’s proposal, to begin war with Spain by cutting off her treasure fleet on its way home, was rejected by the Council, and the great minister resigned. He accepted a pension of 3000*l.* a year, and a peerage for his wife, as Baroness Chatham.

The Seven Years’ War was ended by the *Peace of Paris* (1763). Great Britain retained *Canada*, *Nova Scotia*, and *Cape Breton*, and some of the conquered *West India Islands*, and received back *Minorca*. The war had raised the National Debt from 72 to 132 millions, but it had lifted Britain out of the degraded position into which she had been sunk by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

These gains were Pitt’s, whose triumphant career Bute had the odium of checking. The Earl was already unpopular as a favourite and a Scotchman, when he was assailed by a writer who soon became the most famous of demagogues. Just at the time that Bute became Premier, JOHN WILKES published the first number of a paper called the ‘*North Briton*,’ in which the favourite, the Princess Dowager, and the king himself, were attacked

with great violence and scurrility. Lampoons and caricatures assailed the favourite under the figure of a *jack-boot* (a cavalry boot), a play on the name of John, Earl of Bute. The storm was increased by an excise tax which was laid on cider; and Bute suddenly resigned (1763).

GEORGE GRENVILLE, the new Premier, succeeded to the conflict with John Wilkes, which raged for no less than eleven years. In the famous No. 45 of the 'North Briton,' Wilkes wrote of the royal Speech to Parliament in language which was viewed as giving the king the lie direct. A "general warrant" * was issued for the apprehension of the authors, printers, and publishers of the "seditious and treasonable paper." The contest that followed is chiefly memorable for the condemnation of General Warrants by the Chief Justice, Sir Charles Pratt (afterwards LORD CAMDEN), whose decision was confirmed by Parliament (1766). Wilkes himself, though as profligate in private life as he was violent in public, was made an idol by the populace, whom he despised all the time. "I hope (said he) you don't take me for a *Wilkite*." After being repeatedly expelled the House of Commons and as often re-elected for Middlesex, he quietly took his seat in 1774, and curried favour with the king.

Very different was the result of the second storm raised by George Grenville, through his attempt to tax the colonies in America, on the plea that the late war had been waged for their protection. As a first step, a Stamp Duty was imposed, to raise a few thousand pounds (March, 1765). All the colonial assemblies protested, led by Virginia, the great settlement of the English loyalists. They stood upon the principle, that *no British subject can be taxed without his consent*; so they could not be taxed by the Parliament to which they sent no members.

Meanwhile, the king had a difference with his ministers about a *Regency Bill*.† A new Ministry was formed by the

* That is, a warrant directed against all persons who may be concerned in the alleged crime, without naming them.

† The King's eldest son, GEORGE, PRINCE OF WALES (afterwards George IV.), was born on August 12, 1762.

Marquis of Rockingham (July, 1765), under whom the great Irish orator, EDMUND BURKE, first took office and entered Parliament (January, 1766). The resistance in America, and the danger to our commerce with the Colonies, now grew so serious, that the Stamp Act was repealed. But this concession was spoiled by an Act, which declared the power of Parliament to bind the Colonies "in all cases whatsoever." The Ministry fell through its own weakness; and the king recalled Mr. Pitt, who formed his *Second Administration*. He accepted a peerage as EARL OF CHATHAM, with the office of Lord Privy Seal; the Duke of Grafton being nominal head of the Ministry, as First Lord of the Treasury (August 2, 1766).

Chatham had vast schemes for a Protestant Alliance against the renewed designs of France and Spain; as well as for the better government of Ireland and of India. But his acceptance of a peerage had almost lost him the favour of the people. An attack of gout disabled him from work, and affected his mind. He shut himself up in his favourite retreat at Hayes, in Kent, and the Ministry fell into confusion. During Chatham's absence, the Opposition carried a resolution to reduce the Land-tax. In order to raise the petty sum of 40,000*l.* towards making good the loss, CHARLES TOWNSHEND, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, revived the fatal scheme of taxing the North American colonies. A "*Revenue Act*" was passed, granting the king duties in America on glass, red and white lead, painters' colours, paper, and tea, from November, 1767.

Charles Townshend died in the same year, and was succeeded as Chancellor of the Exchequer by LORD NORTH, who was destined to complete the mischief which Grenville and Townshend had begun. Chatham resigned in October; and the DUKE OF GRAFTON became the real, as he had been the nominal head of the Ministry; but the king's special confidence was given to Lord North.

The Revenue Act was met by the Americans with a determination to use neither the taxed articles nor any British manufactures. There were riots in Boston, the

chief town of New England, and troops were brought from Halifax. On this news, JOHN, DUKE OF BEDFORD, a leading member of the Government, carried a motion in the Lords for measures of coercion, under one of the Treason Acts of Henry VIII. The Assembly of Virginia replied by a Resolution, that the right of taxing the colony was vested solely in its own Legislature (1769).

When Parliament reassembled in January, 1770, Lord Chatham appeared in renewed health, and made one of his most splendid speeches. He attacked the whole policy of Government, and denounced the assumption of arbitrary power, alike by the king or by the House of Commons. "Tyranny, my Lords (said the orator) is detestable in every shape, but in none so formidable as when it is assumed and exercised by a number of tyrants."

The Duke of Grafton resigned on the 28th of January; and LORD NORTH was appointed his successor, to maintain the policy thus announced to him by the king:—"My mind is more and more strengthened in the rightness of the 'measure.' This firm conviction in the royal mind maintained Lord North for twelve years against all the arguments and eloquence of the Opposition, led by Chatham and Burke, and lost England her colonies in America. North's first act was to repeal the obnoxious duties, *except that on Tea*, which was retained expressly to save the right of taxing the Colonies. For the present the compromise was accepted in America, and three years passed over quietly.

In 1771, the great navigator, Captain JAMES COOK, returned from the voyage on which he had been sent out, in 1768, to observe the transit of Venus over the sun in the South Pacific Ocean. It is one of the most instructive facts in British History, that the aid of Government to a purely scientific object led to the discovery of *New South Wales* and the re-discovery of *New Zealand*—the future seats of our Australasian empire—at the very time when the political folly of the same Government had prepared the loss of our colonial empire in North America. Nor is it

a less striking coincidence, that the measures taken to strengthen the British Empire in the East gave the final provocation to our Colonies in the West.

The East India Company had found it necessary to apply to Parliament for money; and they obtained a loan on condition of giving the Crown greater control over their government of India (1773). A *Governor-General* was appointed, with a new Council, to have authority over all the Presidencies. The first Governor-General was MR. WARREN HASTINGS. As a part of the aid given to the Company, they were allowed to export to the American colonies 17,000,000 pounds of tea, which were lying in their warehouses; and the colonial duty was to be paid at the American ports. This attempt to collect the tea duty rekindled the smouldering flame of discontent. When the first tea ships arrived in the port of Boston, they were not allowed to land their cargoes, and finally a party of forty or fifty men, disguised as Mohawk Indians, boarded the ships, broke open the chests, and threw the tea into the bay, on the night of December 16th, 1773.

This outbreak was partly due to the discovery of some letters from the Governor of Massachusetts,* written in a tone hostile to the colonists. These letters had been intercepted by BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, the agent of the colony in England, celebrated as the father of electrical science. He was the first to draw down the lightning with which the clouds are charged, by the simple means of a kite, and to prove that it is nothing else than the force called *Electricity*.

On the 29th of January, 1774, Franklin appeared before the Privy Council in London, to support a petition from Massachusetts for the Governor's dismissal, which had arrived at the same time as the news of the outrage at Boston. He was attacked with a torrent of invective by the Solicitor-General, Alexander Wedderburn (afterwards Lord Loughborough), and laughed to scorn by the Council. Franklin bore it all with perfect temper, went

* The Governors of the Colonies were sent out from home.

home, and folded up the suit he had worn that day, vowed that he would not put on that dress again till America was free.

The Government brought in a Bill to deprive Boston of its privileges as a port; a second for vesting the government of Massachusetts in the Crown, contrary to its Charter; and a third enabling the Governor to send accused persons for trial to another colony, or to Great Britain. Chatham returned to the House of Lords to oppose these measures, and Burke delivered in the Commons his famous speech against taxing the American Colonies. They were joined by another great orator, CHARLES JAMES FOX, third son of Lord Holland, who had first entered Parliament in 1768.

But the force of argument and the thunder of eloquence were launched in vain against the sleepy calmness of Lord North, backed by the will of the king, and supported by a decided majority in Parliament. The Bills were passed by both Houses with their doors locked; and General Gage arrived at Boston with an army to enforce them. The colonists made no armed resistance; but their *First Congress* of fifty-five members met at Philadelphia (September 4). They drew up a *Declaration of Rights*, and resolved to suspend all commerce with the mother country; and they appointed another Congress to meet on the 10th of May.

Before that day, the WAR OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION began with the defeat of a British detachment by the Massachusetts militia at Lexington (April 18, 1775). Next month, the *Second Congress* of Deputies from the thirteen colonies and plantations met at Philadelphia. They drew up articles of perpetual union among their States, and named GEORGE WASHINGTON (now forty-three years old) as Commander-in-Chief of their forces. He was sent to take command of the Militia, which were blockading Gage in Boston. Reinforcements had raised the British army to 10,000 men; and a fleet rode in the bay. The landing of a force to seize the heights that command the city led

to the *Battle of Bunker's Hill*, in which the raw and ill-armed American Militia were only driven from their entrenchments after a fight, which proved their power as well as spirit to resist to the last (June 17, 1775).

On the 4th of July, 1776, the Congress at Philadelphia adopted and signed the *Declaration of Independence* of the "UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMERICA," in support of which, they declared in its last clause, "we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honour."

We have not space to follow the details of the war, which continued for seven years through the Colonies and Canada (1775-1781). It was at first maintained by Washington's untiring firmness amidst great straits. New York was taken by General Howe in September, 1776. Lord Cornwallis defeated Washington at the *Battle of Brandywine*, and took Philadelphia, in September, 1777. But, a month later, General Burgoyne, who had marched from Canada along the Hudson River, with 7000 men and a large body of Indians, was forced to surrender at Saratoga (October 17). Even before this event was known in England, Chatham, at the meeting of Parliament in November, was denouncing the conduct of the war, and especially the aid sought from "the tomahawk and scalping-knife" of the Indians, those "hell-hounds of savage war."

The Government now decided to give way; and Lord North brought in two Bills: one renouncing the right to tax the Colonies; the other providing the fullest powers to treat for peace. This was on the 19th of February, 1778; but already, on the 6th, the king of France, Louis XVI., had made a *Treaty of Amity and Commerce* with the United States. Lord North pressed King George in vain to recall Chatham, as the only man capable of uniting the country in an effort to conciliate America. For Chatham had throughout protested with equal vehemence against British injustice and American independence. That protest was now repeated with his dying breath in the House of Lords. He had risen from his sick-bed, and stood

upon crutches, while he shot forth the last flashes of his eloquence "against the dismemberment of this ancient and most noble monarchy." In making a second effort, to reply to the Duke of Richmond, he fell back on his seat as if in the agonies of death (April 7, 1778).

The scene still lives, in our National Gallery, on the canvas of an American painter, John Singleton Copley, whose son, already born at Boston, an American subject of George III. (May 28, 1772), lived to preside as Lord Chancellor Lyndhurst fifty years later in that same house, and survived till 1863. The house itself perished by fire; but the picture shows the tapestry with which it was hung, representing the *Defeat of the Armada*—the fittest background to the "Death of Chatham." The Earl lingered for a month at Hayes; and died, in his seventieth year, on the 11th of May. He was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Spain declared war with England next year (1779). The alarm of invasion was again raised; and the coasts of Scotland were kept in terror by the famous privateer, *Paul Jones*, who captured two ships of war. The northern kingdoms of Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, joined in an *Armed Neutrality*, to protect the rights of neutrals; and the discovery of a proposed alliance between the United Provinces and the United States led to a declaration of war with Holland (December 20, 1780).

It was in this year that London was disgraced by the *No-Popery Riots*, raised by LORD GEORGE GORDON on account of the repeal of a severe Act against the Roman Catholics. For a whole week (June 2-8), the city was in the hands of a mob, burning Catholic chapels, the gaol of Newgate, and private houses, among which that of Lord Mansfield perished, with its priceless collection of materials for the history of his times. Twenty-one of the rioters were executed; and Lord George Gordon, who was a mad fanatic, died in Newgate, after renouncing Christianity for Judaism.

The contest in America went on with varied fortune, till the last hopes of British success ended with the

capitulation of Lord Cornwallis and his army of 7000 men to Washington and a body of French, at *York Town*, in Virginia (October 19, 1781). The surrender of Minorca to the French decided the long contest of Lord North and the king against the growing force of the Opposition in Parliament. A motion against continuing the war was carried in the House of Commons; and the long administration of Lord North ended on the 20th of March, 1782. The new premier, Lord Rockingham, dying in a few months, was succeeded by William Petty, EARL OF SHELBOURNE, afterwards Marquis of Lansdowne. The younger WILLIAM Pitt, second son of Lord Chatham, became Chancellor of the Exchequer at the age of twenty-three. Shelburne had already opened negotiations with Benjamin Franklin. But, before peace was concluded, two great successes gave England some glory to gild her humiliation. One was the naval victory of Sir GEORGE RODNEY over the French admiral, Count de Grasse, in the West Indies, between the islands of Guadaloupe and Dominica (April 12, 1782). This sea-fight was the first in which the famous manœuvre of "*breaking the line*" was practised. The attacking fleet bore down in line upon the line of the enemy, and the leading ships sailed right through it, cutting off a certain number of ships, upon which the attacking force was doubled, while the rest of the attacked line could only come up slowly to their help.*

The other great British victory was at *Gibraltar*. The Spaniards had besieged the fortress since 1779; and the brave defenders, under General GEORGE ELIOTT, were straitened for provisions, when the Duke de Crillon, who had taken Minorca, was sent to make a decisive effort. A French and Spanish army of 33,000 men was encamped, with 170 heavy guns, on the land side, while great floating batteries lay in the Bay of Algesiras. The besieged had only 7000 men and 80 guns. All Europe watched the result, and the king of Spain's first question each

* The teacher should draw a diagram. The *past tense* is used, since all is changed by steam.

morning was, "Is it taken?" "No! but it will be soon," replied the courtiers; while Eliott's guns answered, "Not yet!"

At last, on the 18th of September, De Crillon brought up ten huge floating batteries, within about 1000 yards of the rock, and 400 guns were soon thundering on both sides. All day the strength of the battering ships, and the contrivances of the Italian engineers against fire, resisted the red-hot balls showered on them from the fortress. But, after sunset, the enemy began to think of saving their crews, and about midnight the largest battery burst into flames, which threw a light as strong as day over the sea and rock, and helped the besieged to aim their redoubled fire. Before sunrise, all the batteries were blazing, and they blew up one after the other. A great fleet under Lord Howe arrived a month later, with stores, and reinforcements; but the enemy declined an action. The key of the Mediterranean was saved, though the siege was continued languidly, till De Crillon announced to Eliott that peace was made. The English general was raised to the peerage, as Lord Heathfield of Gibraltar.

On the 30th of November, 1782, the preliminaries of the *Peace of Paris*, between England and the Americans, were signed by Benjamin Franklin, dressed in the very suit which he had reserved for that day of liberty (see p. 289). Great Britain recognized the independence of the UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMERICA; and when, (two years and a half later) their first minister, JOHN ADAMS, was presented to George III., the king said to him, "I was the last to consent to the separation; but the separation having been made, and having become inevitable, I have always said, as I say now, that I would be the first to meet the friendship of the United States as an independent power." The *Peace of Versailles*, with France and Spain, was signed on the 20th of January, 1783. The chief conquests on both sides were restored, and Minorca was finally given back to Spain. Peace was soon afterwards made with Holland,

The parties of North and Fox carried a vote in the Commons, censuring the peace, and drove Shelburne and Pitt from office (February, 1783). A *Coalition Ministry* was forced on the reluctant king, with the DUKE OF PORTLAND as its nominal head, and NORTH and Fox as Secretaries of State (April 5). Fox, who was the real first minister, was especially odious to the king; and Pitt spoke the mind of the people when, “in the name of the public weal,” he forbade “the banns of this ill-omened and unnatural marriage.”

The great question of the future government of India now pressed for decision. For this purpose Fox brought forward his *India Bill*, which was opposed by Pitt as a plan tending to despotism and corruption, and was unpopular in the country. The India Bill passed the Commons by great majorities; but in the Lords it was rejected by the party which had now become known as “the king’s friends.” On the day after the vote in the Lords, the Ministers were dismissed (December, 1783).

Next day, WILLIAM Pitt was appointed *First Lord of the Treasury* and *Chancellor of the Exchequer*. He was only in his twenty-fifth year when he began the administration which lasted above seventeen years (till March, 1801), and again, after an interval of three years, till his death in January, 1806. Pitt had entered the new Parliament of 1780 at the age of twenty-one. His friend William Wilberforce, who entered Parliament at the same time, wrote of Pitt—“He comes out as his father did, a ready-made orator; and I doubt not but that I shall one day or other see him the first man in the country.” And now, within three years, the prophecy was fulfilled. Supported by the loudly expressed favour of the people, as well as by the firmness of the king, Pitt defied the hostile votes of the Commons, led by Burke, Fox, Sheridan, and North, till the Parliament was dissolved in March, 1784.

In the *Fifth Parliament* of George III., the king’s chosen minister appeared as the leader of a decisive majority returned by an enthusiastic people; and for five years he

was able to carry out his great policy of peace and reform. His *India Bill* established the double government by the Directors and the *Board of Control*, which lasted till 1858. His *Financial Measures* were based on the principles, since carried out by Peel and Gladstone, of lowering Customs' Duties, so as at once to encourage commerce, check smuggling, and ultimately increase the revenue. In 1785, his measure for free commerce between Great Britain and Ireland was rejected by the Irish Parliament; and his Bill for the Reform of Parliament was thrown out for the third time by the House of Commons.

It is not needful to dwell now on the famous *Impeachment of Warren Hastings* for his government of India, which was first moved by Burke in 1786. The trial before the Lords, which gave occasion to that great orator's most splendid speeches, was opened in February, 1788, and ended, after seven years, in a verdict of acquittal (1795).

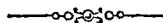
In 1786, Pitt achieved (though but for a moment) the great work of linking together the two nations, whom a fatal tradition had styled "natural enemies," in the bonds of the *Commercial Treaty with France*. The experience of five years sufficed to indicate the blessings, which were snatched from both countries by the terrible events that were at hand. At the same time Pitt's financial reform was completed by his simplification of the *indirect taxes*—the Customs, Excise, and Stamps. His peaceful policy was proved by averting a war with France, which threatened to spring from the old cause of her interference in Holland.

Such was the prosperous course of Pitt's government, when George III. was seized with a decided fit of insanity, symptoms of which had already appeared once or twice (October, 1788). Violent debates ensued in Parliament about the Regency, to which Fox and his party maintained that the Prince of Wales had an absolute right; while Pitt was willing that the Prince should hold it on conditions to be laid down by Parliament. The

contest was brought to a sudden pause by the king's recovery (February, 1789).

Never, since Queen Elizabeth's thanksgiving at St. Paul's for the defeat of the Armada, just two centuries before, did England see such an outburst of joy, as when George III. went to the Cathedral to return thanks for his recovery (April 23). Faction was defeated; and peace, prosperity, and progress in wise reform, seemed assured by the union of a beloved king and a popular minister.

But, twelve days later, another royal pageant began the terrible scene of the FRENCH REVOLUTION, which was to cost Britain twenty years of war and more than 600 millions of debt, and to let loose a storm of passion and convulsion, which has never since subsided. On the 5th of May, 1789, Louis XVI. opened the *States General* of France.



CHAP. XXXVI.—GEORGE III.

Part II.—FROM 1789 TO 1804.

THE WAR OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION: AND THE UNION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

FROM the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789, to the Peace of Paris in 1816, the History of Britain is more closely connected than ever with that of Europe. But we must only relate so much of the latter as is needful to make the former clear.

On the 14th of July, 1789, the populace of Paris stormed the state prison of the *Bastille*. When the news reached Versailles, the king exclaimed, “*It is a Revolt!*” “*No! Sire,*” answered the messenger; “*it is a REVOLUTION!*” A bad harvest added the cry for *Bread* to the popular excitement; and the mob of Paris brought the king and queen in a sort of triumphant captivity from Versailles to Paris. The excesses of the mob alarmed the English people; and in the following year (1790), BURKE published his famous ‘Reflections on the Revolution in France,’ and

on the proceedings in certain Societies in London relative to that event.' The work had a magical effect in rousing the people to loyal enthusiasm and fear of democracy. Those who sympathized with the French Revolution were stigmatized as *Jacobins*, from the name of a formidable democratic club in Paris.

Pitt still trusted to keep England out of the storm, and to carry on his schemes of improvement. But when his own proposal for the Reform of Parliament was renewed by Mr. CHARLES GREY (who, as LORD GREY, carried the measure forty years later), Pitt opposed it as untimely; and a Proclamation was issued against seditious meetings and writings (May, 1792).

On the 11th of December "Louis Capet"—as the king of France was now called—was arraigned at the bar of the National Convention for "crimes committed against the people and constitution;" and on the 6th of January, 1793, the sentence of death was passed by 387 votes to 334. The king was executed by the guillotine, on the morning of the 21st of January.

This act raised the abhorrence of the English people towards the French Republic to the utmost height; but France was the first to declare war against England and Holland (February, 1793). It is impossible to follow here the details of this war, or of Pitt's struggle with the democratic party at home. An army under the king's second son, FREDERICK, DUKE OF YORK, failed to take Dunkirk, or to prevent the conquest of Belgium and Holland. A fleet under LORD HOOD took possession of the harbour of Toulon, where the royalists held out against the Republic.

It was at the siege of Toulon that the genius of NAPOLEON BONAPARTE first shone forth. This young Corsican, who was serving at the age of twenty-four as a lieutenant-colonel of artillery, forced the English to evacuate Toulon, after they had burnt the arsenal and the French fleet. The great naval victory of LORD HOWE over the Brest fleet off Ushant, on the 1st of June, 1794, put an end, for the time, to the scheme of the French for invading England.

During this time the French Republic sent forth armies of enthusiastic volunteers, who were often in want of food and clothing, while it had to put down royalist insurrections in several provinces. All power was placed in the hands of the Jacobin leaders, who, as the "Committee of Public Salvation," sent to the guillotine those who would have stopped short in the headlong career of Revolution. This system was called the "Reign of Terror."

On the 28th of July, 1794, the Reign of Terror was ended by the execution of Robespierre and his chief associates in the Committee of Public Salvation. A more moderate republican Constitution was framed, with a *Directory* of five members at its head (September). This new government carried on the war with still greater vigour, while the Allies were distracted by mutual jealousy; and Russia, Austria, and Prussia took advantage of the confusion to effect their infamous *Partition of Poland* (1795). But Britain's mastery of the sea gave her the great Dutch colonies of *Ceylon* and the *Cape of Good Hope*; for Holland was now the subject ally of France. The same year was marked by the unhappy marriage of the Prince of Wales with the Princess Caroline of Brunswick (April 8).

The pressure of the war was aggravated by a bad harvest. When the king went to open Parliament, he was assailed with hisses and cries of "Bread," and the window of his carriage was broken by a stone (October 29). The riot gave occasion for new Acts against seditious writings and meetings. The wonderful victories of Bonaparte over the Austrians in Italy began a new career of French conquests, and proved him to be the greatest of living generals.

Spain, under the influence of the queen's favourite, Godoy, "Prince of the Peace," declared war against England. Her alliance gave France a new fleet; and England was again threatened with invasion. The grand effort was to be made by a union of the Spanish, French, and Dutch fleets to sweep the Channel, while General Hoche brought over his invading army. The Spanish fleet, of

twenty-seven sail of the line and ten frigates, was sailing to join the French and Dutch, when it was brought to action by the British fleet of fifteen sail off *Cape St. Vincent*, the south-western headland of Portugal. A brilliant victory was gained by the skill of SIR JOHN JERVIS and the daring valour of Commodore HORATIO NELSON (February 14, 1797). Sir John Jervis was made EARL ST. VINCENT.

In the same month money had become so scarce, that the Bank of England was unable to pay its notes in cash. Instead of gold guineas, the Bank was authorised to issue notes for 1*l.* and 2*l.*, which soon fell below their nominal value. In the spring of this year there were formidable mutinies in the fleets at Spithead and the Nore; and the sailors had in truth much to complain of. The mutinies were suppressed by mingled firmness and conciliation; and the honour of the British navy was maintained in the great victory of ADMIRAL DUNCAN over the combined Dutch and French fleets off *Camperdown*, on the coast of Holland (October 11). Duncan was created EARL OF CAMPERDOWN.

The fleets thus defeated were to have transported an army of 15,000 men to IRELAND, which was on the eve of the great insurrection raised by a conspiracy called the *Society of United Irishmen*. This time it was not the Catholics, but the Protestants of Ireland, whose disaffection broke out into revolt. The open rebellion began near Dublin on the 23rd of May, 1798, and was almost entirely put down by the end of June.

The same year witnessed the first of the three great naval victories which formed the crowning glory of NELSON. Napoleon Bonaparte, having completed the conquest of Northern Italy, meditated giving a fatal blow to England by the conquest of India; and the Directors, glad to remove him to a distance, agreed to his scheme of an expedition against Egypt, which was fitted out at Toulon. The English Government, in ignorance of its destination, sent Rear-Admiral Nelson to the Mediterranean, with a small detachment of the fleet which was then blockading Cadiz.

Bonaparte set sail from Toulon on the 19th of May. Nelson's want of frigates, for keeping a look-out, enabled the French fleet to reach the coast of Egypt and disembark the army some distance from Alexandria, which Nelson had visited in search of them only two days before! Returning thither on the 1st of August, he saw the French fleet lying in *Aboukir Bay*.

The battle began at twenty minutes past six, and its fury soon lighted up the darkness of the night. Admiral Brueys was killed, and his flag-ship *L'Orient*, of 120 guns, took fire and blew up at 10 o'clock, with an explosion which hushed the noise of battle for several minutes. Nelson himself had been wounded in the head by a splinter, and carried to the cock-pit. He had already lost his right arm at Teneriffe, and his right eye some years before at Corsica; and the skin grazed from his forehead fell over his remaining eye. In this state he rushed on deck to give orders to save the survivors from the *Orient*. When day broke, nine of the thirteen French ships were taken, two were burnt, and only two escaped, with two frigates. The news was received in England with transports of joy, and revived the hopes which had sunk very low. The victor gained his peerage as BARON NELSON OF THE NILE; and the sea-fight is always called (though not accurately) the *Battle of the Nile*.

Bonaparte led his army into Syria and took Jaffa, where he massacred his prisoners, to the number of several thousands. But his dreams of Eastern conquest were crushed by the fierce resistance of Acre, aided by the daring English seaman, SIR SIDNEY SMITH.

Bonaparte now left his army in Egypt, escaped the English cruisers, and landed in France. A month later, like another Cromwell, he led his soldiers into the chambers of the two legislative bodies at St. Cloud, and dispersed them both. Another Constitution was framed, in which the five Directors gave place to three *Consuls*; but all real power was in the hands of NAPOLEON BONAPARTE as First Consul (December, 1799).

The First Consul had scarcely assumed power, when he addressed a letter personally to George III., proposing peace in the high-flown style of which he was fond (December 25). Lord Grenville, the Foreign Secretary, sent a cold and haughty official answer, that, as France had no stable Government to be treated with, Britain must persevere in "a just and defensive war." From that time Bonaparte felt a personal hatred towards England.

The opening of the present century was marked by the full Union of the British Isles under the same free constitution. In 1782, the British Parliament had granted Ireland legislative independence; that is to say, Ireland had her own Parliament, sitting at Dublin, and making laws for the island, subject only to the king's consent. But the Rebellion of 1798 had proved the necessity for a *Legislative Union*, like that effected between England and Scotland under Anne. The Bill, proposed by Pitt, passed the British Parliament in the spring of 1799, and was carried through the Irish House of Commons by dint of bribery (June, 1800). The Union took effect from *the first day of the 19th century* (January 1, 1801); and the *First Parliament of the UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND* met three weeks later.

This work done, Mr. Pitt retired from his seventeen years' administration. He deemed the Union imperfect without the relief of the Roman Catholics; and the scruples of George III. forbade the removal of their disabilities. Besides this, the people were weary of the war. A succession of bad harvests had provoked food-riots; and the quartern loaf now cost nearly two shillings! But Pitt was so convinced of the ambition of Bonaparte, that he was glad to leave others to make a peace which could not last, and to keep himself free for the conduct of the renewed war. He offered his resignation; and on the 14th of March he was succeeded by MR. ADDINGTON.

Before the peace was made, England won new victories both by sea and land. The Czar PAUL of Russia—whose life is one of the strangest examples of the mad-

denying effect of despotism on the despot himself—was a fanatical admirer of Bonaparte. He suddenly seized on British ships and property, and joined with Sweden and Denmark in an “armed neutrality,” to resist the rights which Great Britain claimed over neutrals at sea. A fleet was sent to the Baltic under Sir Hyde Parker; and Lord Nelson, as second in command, won the great *Battle of Copenhagen* in spite of a signal of recall from Admiral Parker. Putting his telescope to his lost eye, Nelson said “ You know I have only one eye, I can’t see it. Nail my signal for ‘close action’ to the mast!” The victory was gained at the price of a terrible loss from the batteries of Copenhagen; and the Danish fleet fought with an obstinate courage which won respect from their English kindred (April 2, 1801). Before this battle was fought, the Czar Paul had been strangled by some of his courtiers (March 24); and his son ALEXANDER I., who succeeded him, was friendly to England.

Nearly at the same time, the army left by Bonaparte in Egypt was beaten in the *Battle of Alexandria*, where Sir Ralph Abercromby fell (March 21); and the French left Egypt under a convention (August 27). Many of the remains of Egyptian art, collected by a body of learned men whom Bonaparte took out with him, became the spoils of war, and were presented by George III. to the British Museum. Egypt was restored to its sovereign, the Sultan of Turkey.

On the 1st of October, 1801, preliminaries were settled between the United Kingdom and the French Republic; and Peace was signed at Amiens, between Great Britain, France, Holland, and Spain, on the 25th of March, 1802. As the *Peace of Amiens* proved but a hollow truce, lasting little more than a year, it is enough to say that England gave back nearly all her conquests, except the islands of Ceylon and Trinidad; while France was extended on the north to the left bank of the Rhine, and on the east and south she kept Savoy, with Geneva, the county of Nice, and the old papal territory of Avignon.

Multitudes of English travellers went to France, which had been closed to them for nearly ten years; and, amongst the rest, Mr. Fox was received with distinction by the First Consul. That office was confirmed to Napoleon Bonaparte for life, with the power to choose his successor (May 9); and his government was now an absolute despotism. To foreign states, and England in particular, he soon showed that he had only sought breathing time for new conquests. He delayed the withdrawal of his troops from Holland, began great naval preparations, and annexed parts of Italy to France. The delay of England, under these circumstances, to restore Malta—the key of the Mediterranean—to the Knights of St. John, who could not have held it against France, was made the ground of fierce charges by Bonaparte. “Woe!” said he “to those who respect not treaties!” among the violent reproaches which he heaped on the British ambassador, Lord Whitworth, in full court at the Tuilleries.

England replied by declaring war (May 18, 1803); and the First Consul took the outrageous step of detaining all the English visitors in France as prisoners of war. Thousands were thus exiled from their country and families for eleven years, which many spent in want and distress; and many others never lived to return home. The renewed war was justly felt to be one against a tyrant aiming at universal empire, who knew that he must crush Liberty in her island home before he could rule the world. The threatened invasion, for which he prepared an immense camp at Boulogne, summoned thousands of British volunteers to arm with enthusiasm for the defence of the island, which an orator called “the Thermopylæ of the universe.” MR. PIT^TR returned to office as Prime Minister; and he took his seat in the House of Commons, after his re-election, *on the same day* on which Napoleon Bonaparte was declared by his Senate EMPEROR OF THE FRENCH. (May 18, 1804.)

CHAP. XXXVII.—GEORGE III.

Part III.—From 1804 to 1820.

THE WAR WITH THE FRENCH EMPIRE : AND THE REGENCY.

NAPOLEON made great preparations for the invasion of England ; and on the 16th of August, 1804, he reviewed his army at Boulogne from a splendid throne, the site of which is marked by a column raised in his honour.

Spain was still subservient to the policy of France ; and Mr. Pitt took the bold step of cutting off the Spanish fleet, as it was bringing home treasure from the Indies for the use of France. Upon this, Spain declared war (December 12), and brought thirty-two sail of the line to the aid of the projected invasion.

Nelson was in command of the Mediterranean fleet, nominally blockading Toulon, but, in fact, giving the French every opportunity to come out and fight. At length, while Nelson was at Malta, Admiral Villeneuve put to sea. He was joined at Cadiz by the Spanish fleet, with 4500 troops on board ; and both sailed for the West Indies (March 31, 1805). Nelson, divining their destination, wrote to Pitt, that “he was sailing after the combined fleet to the West Indies, and if he did not find them there, he would follow them to the Antipodes.” His fleet was just half the force of theirs, and they had a month’s start ; but such was the terror of Nelson’s name, that they attempted nothing against the West Indian islands, for which London was trembling ; and they fled back before him to their own shores.

Westward of Cape Finisterre, their twenty ships of the line and ten frigates were met by fifteen line-of-battle ships under Sir ROBERT CALDER, who fought them for four hours, and took two large Spanish vessels (July 22). Sir Robert was severely blamed for doing no more ; but the check was enough to prevent Villeneuve from entering the Channel, to cover the passage of Napoleon’s flotilla. The combined fleet returned to Cadiz a month later ; and

was there blockaded by Admiral Collingwood. Nelson returned home, worn out and ill, having scarcely set foot on shore for two years.

The Emperor spent the month of August at Boulogne, practising his vast host in embarking and disembarking on the flotilla of gunboats, and expecting the arrival of his combined fleets. But when he heard of Villeneuve's retreat to Cadiz, he promptly decided to march "the army of invasion" from Boulogne to Germany, to act against the Austrians, who had joined England, Russia, and Sweden in a third coalition.

Meanwhile Nelson hastened to offer his services against the fleet of Villeneuve, and hoisted his flag on his old ship, which was soon more fully to deserve her name—the "*Victory*." The sailors and people of Portsmouth welcomed him with tears of joy; and he went forth to his last and most glorious fight with mingled presentiments of victory and death.

He arrived off Cadiz on his birthday, the 29th of September; and withdrew the fleet to a distance, to tempt out the enemy. On the same day the French Admiral Villeneuve received the Emperor's positive orders to risk his ill-manned and ill-equipped fleet against the inferior English force; and, with the first fair wind, the French and Spanish fleet sailed out of the harbour (October 19-20).

The English frigates on the watch brought the welcome news to Nelson; and on Monday morning (October 21) he came in sight of the enemy off CAPE TRAFALGAR. The combined fleets numbered 33 sail of the line, 5 frigates, and 2 brigs; Nelson had 27 sail of the line and 4 frigates. Villeneuve had provided skilfully against the English tactics of "breaking the line" by forming two lines of battle, with the ships in the hindermost line covering the intervals in the foremost.* Nelson promptly met the

* Let the teacher explain this by a diagram:—

device by a new plan of battle. He bore down to the attack in two lines, to pierce the line of the enemy at two different points, and attack the ships thus cut off on all sides at once. This must lead to a close and confused battle, amidst the smoke of which signals could hardly be seen ; but Nelson gave the simple direction that "No captain could do wrong who placed his ship alongside that of an enemy." Expecting his fate, he refused to lay aside his full dress and the stars of his various orders, which made him a mark for the riflemen in the enemies' tops. "For myself, individually, I commit my life to Him that made me," were the closing words of a prayer which he wrote in his cabin before the battle. When all was ready, Nelson sent up the signal, to which our country's heart will ever beat responsive, alike in peace and war—
"ENGLAND EXPECTS THAT EVERY MAN WILL DO HIS DUTY."

The squadron led by Collingwood was the first to break the enemy's line. At that moment the friends thought of one another. "See!" cried Nelson, "how that noble fellow carries his ship into action!" "What would Nelson give to be here!" said Collingwood. The Admiral himself was soon in a battle so close and hot, that four ships were locked together, and the "Victory" had to fire with half charges, lest her shot should strike an English ship on the further side of the enemy. About three o'clock a shot from the mizen-top of the *Redoutable* struck Nelson through the backbone. He lived about three hours, and died just after the last guns were fired. Each cheer of his crew, as another and another enemy's ship struck, lighted up his face with triumph ; and, when told at last of the glorious victory he had won, he said, "Now I am satisfied ; thank God, *I have done my duty.*"

Nelson had said he would be satisfied with 20 of the enemy's ships as prizes ; and 19 were taken, with 20,000 prisoners. But the disregard of his last earnest injunctions to *anchor*, caused the loss of most of the prizes in a storm after the battle.

The naval power of France and Spain was completely

crippled for the nine years that the war still lasted ; and the worthy followers of Nelson had only to glean after the harvest of his victory. The nation's joy over the greatest of our naval triumphs since the Armada, was swallowed up in sorrow for his death ; and no ceremony of our times—not even the funeral of Wellington, when he died in the ripeness of his old age—can give an idea of the emotions amidst which Nelson was borne to his tomb in St. Paul's at the age of forty-seven. All the funeral pomp lavished by a mourning nation was as nothing to the burst of feeling which made the sailors who bore him to the tomb tear up and carry off the relics of the flag that lay on his coffin for a pall.

Nelson was buried on the 9th of January, 1806, and the same month called the British people to mourn the statesman who had sent him forth to conquer.

Napoleon's great victory of *Austerlitz*, in Moravia, over the Austrians and Russians (December 2, 1805), compelled the Emperor Francis II. to sue for peace.

This failure of the coalition, which was especially his own work, proved a death-blow to Pitt, whose health had been failing for some time. "Roll up that map of Europe," he exclaimed, "it will not be wanted these ten years." Half an hour before his death, his servant heard him sigh out the words, "My country ! oh, my country !" He died at Putney Heath, at the age of forty-six, on the twenty-sixth anniversary of the day on which he first entered Parliament (January 23, 1806). He was buried a month later in his father's vault, and at the foot of his father's monument, in Westminster Abbey. No man was ever more bitterly assailed in the conflicts of party; but all confess the truth of the words uttered by the herald over Pitt's tomb—"He lived not to himself, but to his country."

LORD GRENVILLE now formed an administration comprising the leaders of the Whig opposition, and known as the *Ministry of All the Talents* (February 5, 1806). LORD ERSKINE, whose great eloquence had been used in defending the radical reformers prosecuted by Pitt, was Lord Chan-

cellor. MR. FOX, as Foreign Secretary, was the guiding spirit of the Ministry; but he survived his great rival only eight months. His heart was set upon two objects, the restoration of peace, and the abolition of the slave trade. The overtures which he made for peace were rendered fruitless by Napoleon's grasping ambition. Fox's last public act was to carry in the Commons a resolution for the *Abolition of the Slave Trade* with the British Colonies. He died on the 13th of September, 1806, and was buried near Pitt in Westminster Abbey. In the new Parliament, Fox's surviving colleagues had the great honour of completing the abolition of the slave trade; but, on the very day that the Act was passed, they resigned on account of the king's opposition to Catholic Emancipation (March 25, 1807).

In the Ministry of the DUKE OF PORTLAND, LORD ELDON was Lord Chancellor for the second time; foreign affairs were entrusted to GEORGE CANNING, who was 37 years old; VISCOUNT CASTLEREAGH (Robert Stewart) had the conduct of the war; and VISCOUNT PALMERSTON (Henry John Temple), then in his twenty-third year, began his official career of almost threescore years, as a Lord of the Admiralty.

Napoleon had now reached the summit of his power. As the result of his victory at Austerlitz, he had put an end to the *Holy Roman Empire*, which had lasted above 1000 years from the coronation of Charles the Great at Rome on Christmas Day, 800 (see p. 16). On the 6th of August, 1806, Francis II. resigned the imperial crown, and assumed the new title of *Emperor of Austria*. Prussia chose this unfortunate moment to draw the sword, and was utterly crushed by Napoleon at the *Battle of Jena* (October 14, 1806). From the Prussian capital, Napoleon issued his famous *Berlin Decree*, declaring the British Islands in a state of blockade (November, 1806).*

The Prussian king, FREDERICK WILLIAM III., united the remnant of his army with that of Russia in eastern Prussia,

* A year later he put forth at *Milan* a still more severe decree against British commerce (December, 1807).

and one of the bloodiest and least decisive of Napoleon's victories was gained at *Eylau* (February 8, 1807). The more decisive battle of *Friedland* impressed the young Czar, ALEXANDER I., with an awe of Napoleon, which was ripened into intense admiration by a personal interview at *Tilsit* on the river Niemen. The peace signed there, on the 9th of July, stripped Prussia of the greater part of her territory, and reduced her to seeming helplessness; and its secret articles bound the two emperors in a league for what was little less than a partition of the world.

To this end, Austria, and the maritime powers of Sweden, Denmark, and Portugal, were to be summoned to join the alliance against Great Britain, and to shut out her commerce from their ports. These secret articles came to the knowledge of Mr. Canning, who demanded the surrender of the Danish fleet. This was not yielded till Copenhagen had been bombarded for four days by an expedition under Lord Cathcart and Sir Arthur Wellesley (September, 1807). On the 11th of November, the British Government replied to Napoleon's *Berlin Decree* by the *Orders in Council*, which forbade all commerce with ports occupied by the French. The effect was disastrous to our own commerce and manufactures, and the Orders were revoked some years afterwards; but not till they had involved us in war with America.

England stood alone against the Continent dominated by the empires of France and Russia. France itself now extended from the Rhine to the borders of Naples, and virtually included Lombardy, Venetia, and Illyria, over which Napoleon reigned as King of Italy. The only ally left to England was the little kingdom of Portugal, which had refused to enter into the "Continental System" of Napoleon. Her refusal gave a pretext for the first step in Napoleon's scheme for adding the whole Peninsula to his dominions—the first step also which led to his ruin.

In October, 1807, General Junot entered Spain on his march to Portugal; and on the 13th of November the French official journal (*the Moniteur*) announced the decree

of the Emperor, “The House of Braganza has ceased to reign.” The Regent of Portugal and his family embarked on board a British fleet, with the royal treasures and archives, and sailed for Brazil (November 29), just in time to escape Junot, who had reached Lisbon two days before.

Next came the turn of Spain, which had so long been the subservient ally of France. FERDINAND, Prince of Asturias, now in his twenty-fourth year, had appealed to Napoleon against the bondage in which he was kept by his father, Charles IV., and his infamous minister Godoy. The Prince was thrown into prison for an alleged conspiracy against his father; but the people of Madrid rose in his favour: Charles IV. abdicated, and Ferdinand was proclaimed king (March 19, 1808). In April, Napoleon went to Bayonne, near the Pyrenees, and induced first Ferdinand, and then Charles, to meet him there, and to make a surrender of the Crown of Spain, which he conferred on his brother Joseph. The Spaniards took up arms against him, and formed local governments, called *Juntas*. The supreme Junta at Seville proclaimed Ferdinand VII. King of Spain; and Joseph Bonaparte, who had entered Madrid on the 10th of July, was driven out only a fortnight later. He wrote to his imperial brother the prophetic words, “Your glory will be shipwrecked in Spain.” Zaragoza, the capital of Aragon, maintained for three weeks that memorable defence, animated by the “Maid of Zaragoza,” which has passed into a proverb; and the siege was raised by the French on the 4th of August.

The rising of the two nations of the peninsula for their liberty fired the British people with sympathy. The enthusiastic spirit of Canning seized the opportunity; and a fit commander was not wanting. At first, indeed, SIR ARTHUR WELLESLEY (now in his fortieth year) was appointed only to an inferior command; and the victory which he won at *Vimiera*, near Lisbon (August 21), was followed, on the arrival of his two superiors, by the disgraceful *Convention of Cintra*, by which Junot and his army were conveyed to France on board the British fleet

(August 30). All three generals were recalled for an enquiry, which condemned the Convention and established the reputation of Wellesley.

SIR JOHN MOORE, who was left in command of the British force in Portugal, marched towards Madrid (October). But he was badly seconded by the Spaniards; and the French armies, closing in around him, forced him to begin a disastrous retreat on Christmas Eve. To cover the embarkation of the British at Corunna, Moore fought the victorious battle in which he fell (January 16, 1809). His burial in the night, on the ramparts of the city, forms the subject of one of the most touching odes in our language.

This failure of the first stage of the PENINSULAR WAR did not dishearten Canning; and Austria's declaration of war against France diverted the energies of Napoleon. Sir Arthur Wellesley landed at Lisbon, in April, to take command of the small British army in Portugal. In May he crossed the river Douro by equal skill and daring in face of the superior force of Soult, who hastily evacuated Oporto. Sir Arthur's great victory over Marshal Victor at *Talavera* (July 28, 1809) gained him the title of Viscount WELLINGTON. He had to retreat before Soult's greater numbers, while the troops that ought to have reinforced him were sent on a disastrous expedition against Antwerp. Put up in the Isle of Walcheren, at the mouth of the Scheldt, they perished with ague; and the wretched survivors re-embarked at the end of the year.

In the same month in which Talavera made men begin to doubt the invincibility of Napoleon, his decisive victory at *Wagram*, near Vienna, had again placed Austria at his feet. He dictated a humiliating peace; and allied himself to the imperial house by a marriage with the Archduchess MARIA LOUISA; having divorced his faithful wife, Josephine, for the sake of perpetuating his dynasty. The marriage took place in April, 1810; and in 1811, a son was born, whom Napoleon created KING OF ROME. This child died in 1832, after being brought up as an Austrian prince.

While Napoleon was dictating peace to Austria, the British people kept the JUBILEE of their beloved king, at the beginning of the fiftieth year of his reign (October 25, 1809). Four days later, the Ministry—already weakened by the loss of Canning and Castlereagh, who had quarrelled and fought a duel about the Walcheren affair—was broken up by the death of the Duke of Portland.

The new Ministry of MR. SPENCER PERCEVAL gave but cold support to Lord Wellington; while Napoleon poured 200,000 troops into the Peninsula, and bade the “eagles of France” to “drive the English leopard* into the sea.” But between them and that sea the genius of Wellington had drawn an impassable barrier in the famous *Lines of Torres Vedras*, from the Tagus to the Ocean, covering Lisbon and its port. After defeating the pursuing army of Marshal Massena at *Busaco* (September 9, 1810), Wellington retired behind these lines; and Masséna, after trying in vain to force them, began his retreat on the 15th of November.

In the same month, just after completing fifty years of his reign, GEORGE III. suffered the final loss of his reason, to which was added the affliction of blindness.

THE REGENCY. (A.D. 1811-1820.)

GEORGE, Prince of Wales, who was now forty-eight years old, was appointed PRINCE REGENT (February 5, 1811), and he retained the same ministers. But on the assassination of Mr. Spencer Perceval by a lunatic named Bellingham, the EARL OF LIVERPOOL (Robert Banks Jenkinson) began his long premiership of fifteen years, with Lord Castlereagh as Foreign Secretary (June 8, 1812).

Meanwhile Wellington had advanced from the lines of *Torres Vedras*; and two years of success were crowned by the decisive victory of *Salamanca* (July 22) and his entry into Madrid (August 12, 1812). But the superior forces

* In allusion to the standards of the two countries: the lions in the English coat of arms are said to have been originally leopards in the shield of William the Conqueror.

of the French compelled him to retire once more to the frontier of Portugal.

In the same year Napoleon plunged into his fatal invasion of Russia, at the head of the vast forces of his empire, with those of Germany and Austria. After gaining the bloody battle of *Borodino*, he entered Moscow, the old capital of Russia (September 15, 1812). The Emperor Alexander still refused to treat for peace, and the governor of Moscow set fire to the city. After lingering for a month, while an early winter set in with unusual severity, Napoleon, destitute of supplies, began that awful retreat, in which he left nearly half a million of men buried beneath the snows of Russia.

He at once ordered a new levy of 350,000 men, and took the field next year against a league of Russia, Sweden, Prussia, and Austria, and, what was far more, against the German people, who rose as one man. At the same time, Wellington began his final advance, and delivered the Peninsula from the French by his decisive defeat of King Joseph and Marshal Jourdan at *Vittoria* (June 21, 1813). Wellington crossed the river Bidassoa into France in the same month in which Napoleon was overwhelmed by numbers in the fearful three days' *Battle of Leipzig* (October 16–18, 1813). Even then the Allies offered Napoleon the frontier of the Rhine and the Alps; but he would have all or nothing.

On the last day of the old year, the van-guard of the allied army, with songs and weeping, crossed the Rhine into France. Never was the genius of Napoleon more brilliant than in the campaign of 1814, in which he held at bay the vast hosts, that at last overwhelmed him by their numbers. Paris capitulated on the 1st of March; and Napoleon abdicated at Fontainebleau on the 11th of April. On the day before (Easter Sunday), Wellington had gained his final victory in the Peninsular War over Marshal Soult, at Toulouse. The restored Bourbon king, Louis XVIII.*

* The Dauphin, son of Louis XVI., who died a prisoner in the Temple in Paris, was reckoned as Louis XVII., though he never reigned.

brother of the unfortunate Louis XVI., signed the *Peace of Paris* (May 30, 1814). Napoleon was allowed to retain the title of Emperor, and to exercise sovereignty in the little island of Elba.

The deliverer of the Peninsula, now created DUKE OF WELLINGTON, was received in England with unbounded honour; and the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia, with the veteran Marshal Blücher, were welcomed by the people with enthusiasm, on their visit to the Prince Regent (1814).

But Great Britain was still unhappily at war with the United States. The "Orders in Council" (see p. 309) had been repealed too late to prevent a declaration of war by the United States (June 18, 1812). An irregular and indecisive warfare was maintained along the frontier of Canada; but several disasters were incurred at sea, through the neglected state of our navy and the superior force of the American frigates. When the war in Europe ceased, 3500 of Wellington's veterans sailed from France to America. Their raid upon *Washington* (the federal capital) was avenged by the repulse of their attack upon *New Orleans*. But before this disastrous failure, peace had already been concluded with the United States by the *Treaty of Ghent* (December 24, 1814).

The great Powers had met in Congress at Vienna, to parcel out Europe afresh, when the news arrived that Napoleon had escaped from Elba, and landed at Cannes in the south of France (March 1, 1815). The French soldiers sent against him no sooner saw his face, than they hailed him as their much-loved Emperor. Marshal Ney, who had promised to bring him back to Paris like a caged beast, fell into the arms of the master who had saluted him, on the retreat from Russia, as "the bravest of the brave." On the 20th of March, Louis XVIII. fled from the Tuileries, where Napoleon took up his abode again next day. The short period of his restoration is known as *The Hundred Days*.

The Emperor raised six armies, to make head against

the million of men who were set in motion against him on all sides. On the 14th of June, he crossed the frontier of Belgium, and on the 16th he defeated the Prussians under Blücher at *Ligny*, on the road between Namur and Brussels. But the British, under Wellington, marching from Brussels during the night and day, repulsed Ney at *Quatre Bras* (*i.e.* “the cross roads”), where the road from Brussels parts to Namur and Charleroi.* Napoleon thought that the Prussians were severed from the British, and he sent Marshal Grouchy to pursue them with 30,000 men. On the 17th the British fell back to a position which Wellington had chosen the year before as the best to cover Brussels—a ridge of ground at *Mont St. Jean*, two miles south of the village of WATERLOO. Napoleon ranged his army on the opposite ridge; and when, after a night of incessant rain, he saw that the British army still held its ground, he cried with joy—“I have caught them at last—these English!” His force numbered about 78,000 men; the British and their allies 72,720. But the Emperor was superior in artillery, and he commanded his own veteran troops; while only half of Wellington’s were British, and most of these were raw recruits, for the Peninsular veterans had not yet returned from America. The other half were Hanoverians, Dutch, and Belgians, many of whom were disaffected, and some fled from the battle-field.

It was about the stroke of twelve, on Sunday, the 18th of June, that Napoleon’s brother Jerome began the attack on the farmhouse of Hougoumont, occupied as a strong post by the British foot-guards, in the valley on the left of the English right centre. The house, though set on fire, was held by the British through the day. When afterwards a prize was offered for the man who had been the bravest at Waterloo, the Duke adjudged it to an officer and sergeant, who shut the gates of the courtyard by main strength in face of the French.

Wellington rode to every point where fierce attacks were made on the British line, animating his men to the

* A good map should be used here.

one duty of standing fast. Charge after charge had been repulsed, the French cavalry at one time riding between and round the squares, into which the British were formed to resist them, when the Prussians began to show themselves on the French right early in the afternoon.

Before the battle of Ligny, Blücher had promised Wellington to be present on the field at Waterloo. Notwithstanding his defeat at Ligny, where he had been thrown from his horse and ridden over by the French cavalry, the old Prussian general nobly kept his word. Leaving a rear-guard to hold Grouchy in check at Wavre on the river Dyle, Blücher had pressed on through fields and roads almost equally impassable from the mud, crying, "Forward, my children! I have promised Wellington!" As the Prussians came in force upon the field, Napoleon made a last effort to break the English line by two successive charges of his veteran guards, led by Ney. But each column crumbled, and reeled back, broken by the fire poured into its head and flank, before it could deploy for the charge. As Napoleon saw the last effort fail, he exclaimed "For the present all is over!" The cry was raised, "*Sauve qui peut!*" ("Let each save himself as he can!"); and he rode from the field to Charleroi, narrowly escaping capture by the Prussians.

Ere this Wellington had ordered an advance along the whole line. He rode forward amidst the fire, answering the warnings of his staff with, "Let them fire away: the battle's won; and my life is of no value now." The mid-summer twilight was closing in, when Blücher overtook him two miles beyond the field near Genappe. He left the Prussians to continue the pursuit; and fiercely they pressed it all night, giving no quarter, while Wellington rode back to Waterloo. In a letter written next day he said, "The glory resulting from such actions, so dearly bought, is no consolation to me for the losses of such a day."

The loss of the French, from the 16th to the 18th was about 30,000 men and 200 guns; that of the Allies was

15,000 men. In proportion to the numbers engaged, WATERLOO was one of the bloodiest of modern battles. It was the most decisive, for its result was the final fall of Napoleon. After attempting to escape to America, he surrendered himself on board of the British ship "Bellerophon" at Rochefort (July 15). The fallen Emperor was sent, by the decision of the Allies, a prisoner to the island of *St. Helena*, where he died on the 5th of May, 1821.

A Second *Peace of Paris* was signed on the 20th of November, 1815. France, under the restored Bourbons, was restricted to its limits before the war of 1792; and the Congress of Vienna renewed the work of parcelling out the states of Europe, with little regard to the wishes of their peoples. Among other changes, Hanover was raised from an electorate to a kingdom. The Duke of Wellington was rewarded by the gift of the estate of *Stratfield Saye*, to be held by a tenure like that of Blenheim. (See p. 250.)

The noblest part of the treaty of Paris was an agreement of the powers of Europe for abolishing the slave trade. It was also determined to put an end to the piracy, by which the Barbary States of North Africa had for three centuries been wont to capture Christian slaves, to work their galleys. In 1816 LORD EXMOUTH bombarded Algiers, burned the Dey's fleet, and forced him to accept peace on the terms of entirely abolishing Christian slavery.

In the same year, the PRINCESS CHARLOTTE of Wales, only daughter of the Prince Regent, was married to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg (May 2). She died in childbirth, to the inexpressible grief of the nation, in November, 1817.

The burthens of the war were now most severely felt. Besides an overwhelming load of taxation, it had raised the National Debt from 228 to fully 900 millions sterling, involving an annual charge of nearly 30 millions. The depression of the works of industry was aggravated by a succession of bad seasons. Distress led to riots, and riots to measures of repression; among these the *Habeas Corpus Act* was suspended for a year (1817). At the same time,

the constitutional questions, which the war had postponed, especially that of Parliamentary Reform, were revived by violent agitators, who were called "Radicals." Prosecutions for sedition and political libels were revived, and the Home Secretary, LORD SIDMOUTH (the same Mr. Addington, who was formerly Premier) carried a series of harsh measures known as the "Six Acts" (1819).

But other and better enactments began the age of internal peace and progress, which has continued almost without interruption for above half a century. MR. PEEL, better known by his later title of Sir Robert Peel, carried a measure for the restoration of cash payments by the Bank of England, and for placing the national currency of money on the secure basis of gold. SIR SAMUEL ROMILLY continued the reforms of our criminal law, which he had begun in 1810, and succeeded in reducing the number of capital crimes, which then sent numerous victims to the gallows every week. MR. HENRY BROUGHAM began his long labours in the great cause of *Education* by obtaining a Committee of Enquiry in the House of Commons (1816). *Savings Banks* were founded in the same year; and the advance of manufactures by the use of machinery, which had marked the first half of George III.'s reign, was resumed under the new impulse which peace gave to commerce, and was quickened by the aid of the Steam-Engine.

Amidst the dawn of reviving prosperity, GEORGE III. closed his long reign and life, the last nine years of which had been obscured by blindness and mental disease. Men said to each other, "The good old king is dead"; and he was sincerely mourned by a people, who cherished the memory of his pure intentions and unsullied private life. He died at Windsor on the 29th of January, 1820, in the eighty-second year of his age and the sixtieth of his reign; and was buried in St. George's Chapel. The Duke of Kent had died only six days before his father, leaving the future queen, the Princess Victoria, a child of only nine months old.

CHAR. XXXVIII.—GEORGE IV.

FROM JANUARY 29, 1820, TO JUNE 26, 1830.

Born, August 12, 1762. *Reigned*, 10½ years. *Age*, 68.

THE change from the Regency to the reign of George IV. was little more than one of name and state. But the unpopularity of the Regent, through his personal character and the severe measures of his government, was set in a stronger light when he became king.

In the first month of his reign an execrable plot was discovered for the assassination of the Ministers, when assembled at a Cabinet dinner party, for which Arthur Thistlewood and four of his gang were executed (May 1). It was called the "Cato Street Conspiracy," from the place of meeting.

Great public agitation was roused by a cause, on which it is now full time to touch but lightly. The unhappy marriage of the Prince of Wales had been followed by an entire separation, after the birth of the Princess Charlotte. The Princess of Wales had lived abroad; and her conduct had been the subject of charges and enquiries, with a view to a divorce. On her return, to claim her rights as QUEEN CAROLINE, a Bill of Pains and Penalties against her was brought into Parliament by the Ministers. After a long trial before the Peers, signalized by the eloquence of Mr. Brougham as the queen's chief advocate, and watched by the people with a dangerous excitement, the Bill passed the House of Lords by a majority so narrow, that it was abandoned amidst universal joy (November, 1820).

An ill-advised attempt to force her way into Westminster Abbey, on the day of her husband's coronation (July 19, 1821), hastened the queen's death; and she expired on the 7th of August, at the age of fifty-two. Her trial and end gave a death-blow to George IV.'s remaining popularity in England; but he was received with enthusiasm on his visits to Ireland and Scotland, the first

paid by any king of the House of Hanover (1821, 1822). In 1822, important changes were made in the Government. MR. PEEL became Home Secretary in place of the unpopular Lord Sidmouth; and, on the death of Lord Castlereagh (Marquis of Londonderry), MR. CANNING returned to the administration of Foreign Affairs. His great object was to thwart the scheme of the "Holy Alliance," which had been formed by Russia, Prussia, and Austria, for the support of despotism in Europe.

The chief field of the conflict was in Spain, where the restored king, Ferdinand VII., sought the aid of the Holy Alliance against the Constitution which he had sworn to observe. In April, 1823, a French army marched into Spain, and restored Ferdinand to absolute authority, which he used for cruel vengeance on the patriot leaders. Canning, who had remonstrated in vain, replied by recognizing the Republics in South and Central America, which had declared their independence of the mother country (1824). Thus the proud empire of "Spain and the Indies" came to an end; but the Spanish American Republics have been the prey of disorder and revolutions for fifty years.

In France, Louis XVIII., who had faithfully observed the Constitutional Charter, was succeeded by his more despotic brother, CHARLES X. (1824); and on the death of the Czar Alexander I., the throne of Russia was seized by his younger brother NICHOLAS, to the exclusion of the elder brother, Constantine (1825). All these changes abroad have had a great influence on British history.

The practical revival of Pitt's great principles of Free Trade and Financial Reform was begun by MR. WILLIAM HUSKISSON, who became President of the Board of Trade in 1823; and the remission of taxation went on more rapidly in the ten following years, than in the twenty years succeeding the Reform of Parliament in 1832. But renewed prosperity tempted to wild commercial speculations, which caused a terrible "financial panic," with the failure of many banks and trading houses, in 1825.. One

result of this crisis was the Act allowing the establishment of Joint Stock Banks (1826).

The year 1827 opened with the death of the king's next brother, the Duke of York (January 5). In the next month, Lord Liverpool was struck down by apoplexy; and Mr. CANNING became Prime Minister (April 10), but he died at the age of fifty-seven, on the 8th of August. He was buried in Westminster Abbey. His last act was done on behalf of an oppressed nation, the very name of which has been, for above two thousand years, the watchword of the long conflict of freedom and patriotism against tyranny and foreign conquest.

GREECE had begun the war of independence against her Turkish masters in 1821. Her cause won sympathy and aid from some of England's noblest spirits; and among these volunteers was LORD BYRON. The noble poet, who had made Greek freedom the theme of his most ardent song, brought his sword to its support in 1824, and died of fever at Missolonghi on the 19th of April. On the 2nd of June, 1827, the insurrection appeared to have received its death-blow when the Turks captured Athens. But Mr. Canning, just a month before his death, united Great Britain, France, and Russia in a Treaty to stop the war, if necessary, by force (July 7, 1827).

While negotiations were going on at Constantinople, the obstinacy of Ibrahim Pasha, who commanded the Turkish and Egyptian fleet in the harbour of Navarino, provoked a conflict with the fleets of England, France, and Russia, under SIR EDWARD CODRINGTON (October 20, 1827). The naval force of Turkey was utterly destroyed, and the triumph of the Greek cause secured. But this blow to the Ottoman Porte was taken advantage of next year by Russia, whose victorious army marched almost to Constantinople. By the *Peace of Adrianople* the Sultan ratified the independence of Greece (1829). The crown of the new state, after being refused by Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg (1830) was accepted by OTHO of Bavaria, who reigned from 1831 till he was deposed in 1861.

Canning was succeeded as Premier by Viscount Goderich (Frederick John Robinson, afterwards Earl of Ripon); but his weak government fell through internal discord, after only five months' existence, and without venturing to meet Parliament.

In January, 1828, the Duke of Wellington became Prime Minister, with Mr. Peel as Home Secretary and leader of the House of Commons, and Lord Lyndhurst (see p. 291) as Lord Chancellor. The work of improvement was carried on vigorously, in the reduction of expenditure, in the remission of taxes, and in Mr. Peel's great measure for increasing the security of London by establishing the *New Police*. A sound and healthy cheap literature was furnished to the people by Societies and the enterprise of publishers. Mechanics' Institutes were founded; and a University was for the first time opened in London.

Early in the Session of 1828 Lord John Russell (then in his thirty-sixth year) carried a motion for the *Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts* (see pp. 216, 221), against the Government, who accepted the decision, and the Bill was passed (May 9, 1828). The question of the Catholic Disabilities (see p. 221) was next brought to a decision. Daniel O'Connell, the leader of the agitation for Catholic Emancipation, was elected member for Clare (July 5); but, as a Catholic, he was not allowed to take his seat. The motion of Sir Francis Burdett for the repeal of the Catholic Disabilities was carried in the Commons, but the Lords threw out the Bill; and when Parliament was prorogued, at the end of July, Ireland seemed to be on the verge of civil war.

Rather than bring upon his country what he described, from his own bitter experience, as the worst form of war, Wellington resolved to propose the measure which his party had always resisted. Mr. Peel took the same course, at the cost not only of his seat for the University of Oxford, but (to use his own words) "the rage of party, the alienation of private friends, the interruption of family affections."

After vehement opposition, not only in Parliament, but from the Protestant feeling of the country, the *Catholic Emancipation Act* was passed on the 13th of April, 1829.

It was made lawful for Roman Catholics to sit in Parliament, on taking a special oath, in place of the oath of supremacy.* All corporate and civil offices were opened to members of the Church of Rome, except those of Regent, Viceroy of Ireland, Lord Chancellor of England, and Lord Chancellor of Ireland; but this last restriction was removed in 1867. No sooner was the Act passed, than Mr. O'Connell proved, by the violence of his speeches, how frail was the hope that Ireland would yet be tranquillized.

The question of *Parliamentary Reform* next claimed decision; but, amidst the various proposals brought forward in the next Session, the reign of George IV. came to an end. He had long lived in seclusion at Windsor, where he died on the 26th of June, little regretted by his people. His character has since been judged too harshly. His excellent abilities, good nature, and the grace which made him "the first gentleman in Europe," were marred by evil influences in his family and friendships, by the self-indulgence which makes the worst wreck of the best natures, and by a fatal want of truthfulness. His character was thus summed up by the Duke of Wellington: "He was, indeed, the most extraordinary compound of talent, wit, buffoonery, obstinacy, and good feeling—in short, a medley of the most opposite qualities, with a great preponderance of good—that I ever saw in any character in my life."

* This oath has been since abolished (1858); and now all members take one simple oath of allegiance.

CHAP. XXXIX.—WILLIAM IV.

FROM JUNE 26, 1830, TO JUNE 20, 1837.

Born, August 24, 1765. Reigned, 7 years. Age, 72.

WILLIAM HENRY, Duke of Clarence, the third son of George III., having entered the navy at the usual early age, had enjoyed few advantages of education. But he had the natural good sense and good nature of his family, and the frank bearing of a British sailor. He had taken no decided part in politics, and the favour which he enjoyed by contrast with his brother was increased by the virtues of his queen, ADELAIDE of Saxe-Meiningen. Their two daughters had died in infancy.

Parliament was prorogued on the 23rd of July, with congratulations from the king on the general tranquillity of Europe; and next day it was dissolved. The day after, Charles X., by the advice of his minister Prince Polignac, issued the Ordinances against the freedom of the Press, which provoked the *Second French Revolution* (July 25). In the “Three Days of July” (27th, 28th, and 29th) the people of Paris, fighting behind their barricades, worsted the royal troops; and King Charles X. abdicated the crown and fled to England. The Duke of Orleans—son of the Duke who had died by the guillotine in the first Revolution—was made *King of the French* by the title of LOUIS PHILIPPE I. (August 9); and the new government was at once recognized by England.

Scarcely was the French Revolution completed, when the people of Belgium rebelled against the Union with Holland, to which they had been joined by the Congress of Vienna, and they drove out the Dutch troops (September, 1830). Belgium was made a separate kingdom under LEOPOLD I. (1831), the widowed husband of Princess Charlotte, who married a daughter of Louis Philippe (1832). But the independence of Belgium was only secured, after a war with Holland, by the aid of England and France (1831–2).

The quick success and happy end (as it seemed) of the French Révolution had a mighty influence on the British elections, and decided the question of Parliamentary Reform. But, just before the new Parliament met, a revolution more mighty than political changes was marked by the *Opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway* (September 15). This great event was marred by the accident which killed Mr. Huskisson. That day established the new system of travelling, which has changed all the conditions of life and commerce.

The opening of the new Parliament was marked by the Duke of Wellington's declaration, that he regarded the existing representative system as the best that could be devised, and that he would resist all proposals for its change (November 2, 1830). This challenge to a decisive conflict was eagerly caught up in Parliament, and it roused the whole reforming spirit of the country. "Political Unions" were formed in the great manufacturing towns.

The Government were defeated in the House of Commons on the question of the Civil List for the new reign (November 15). They at once resigned; and a Whig Ministry (the first since 1807) was formed by EARL GREY, the friend and colleague of Fox, and the successor to Pitt's advocacy of Reform in Parliament (November 22). Henry Brougham, now created LORD BROUGHAM AND VAUX, became Lord Chancellor. VISCOUNT ALTHORP was Chancellor of the Exchequer and leader of the House of Commons; and LORD PALMERSTON began the most distinguished part of his official life as Foreign Secretary. Out of the Cabinet, LORD JOHN RUSSELL was Paymaster of the Forces, and MR. EDWARD STANLEY (afterwards Lord Stanley and Earl of Derby) was Chief Secretary for Ireland. The watch words of the new Ministry were *Peace, Retrenchment, and Reform.*

On the re-assembling of Parliament, a *Civil List* of 510,000*l.* was granted to the king, who surrendered the revenue of the Crown Lands to the nation for his reign.

In Ireland the *National Board of Education* was established for the joint instruction of Catholic and Protestant children.

On the 1st of March, the *Reform Bill* was moved by Lord John Russell, in a House alternately struck with amazement at its boldness, and convulsed with laughter by doubts whether it was meant in earnest. Such doubts were met by Lord John's emphatic demand—which soon echoed through the land—for “the Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing else than the Bill.” It was proposed to disfranchise (wholly or in part) the decayed boroughs, which had few electors, and in one or two cases none at all, and whose representatives were returned by the will of their owners, or other personal influence. The seats thus gained were to be transferred to the counties, and to towns, such as Birmingham, Manchester, and many others, which had grown great by manufactures and commerce, without as yet obtaining representatives. The power of electing members was to be taken from the municipal corporations, which at that time did not represent the people of their towns, and to be entrusted to householders who paid rents of 10*l.* a year or upwards. The Bill proposed also to extend the county franchise. Scotland and Ireland were to have more members. All voters were to be registered; and elections were to be made more speedy, and therefore less expensive.

It is the less necessary to go into further detail, as the whole system has been re-adjusted by the Reform Acts of 1867 and 1868. But the change was nothing short of a revolution, which transferred the choice of the House of Commons—the real governing body of the country—from the nobility and wealthy proprietors to those who held a moderate stake in the country, generally called the middle classes.

The rejection of the Bill by the Lords caused the wildest anger throughout the country; and there were terrible riots at Derby, Nottingham, and Bristol. The disorders of political excitement were aggravated by those of popular ignorance; and country villages were disturbed by the

breaking of machinery and the burning of barns and stacks of corn. To increase the public alarm, the terrible plague of *Cholera*, which had been steadily advancing from its source in India across the continents of Asia and Europe, now reached our shores. The scourge brought home to all classes the lesson of regard for the first laws of health; and the beginning of *Sanitary Reform* may be dated from the *Boards of Health Act* of 1831.

The Peers at last gave way, and the Reform Bill received the Royal Assent on the 7th of June, 1832. Separate Reform Acts were passed for Scotland and Ireland.

The elections under the new system gave an overwhelming majority to the Whig government. But Sir ROBERT PEEL set himself to rally the Tory party under the new name of *Conservatives*. The Whigs, on the other hand, with their Radical allies, assumed the name of *Liberals*.

The two years of the first reformed Parliament were occupied with a number of changes that had long awaited settlement. In 1833, an Act was passed for reforming the Irish Church, as to the distribution of its property, and reducing the number of its bishops. *Negro Slavery* was abolished in the British ~~end of the~~ from the 1st of August, 1834, at the cost of 2⁰⁰⁰ subdued. ~~T~~ compensation to the slave-owners. The *Charter Commission of England* and the *East India Company* were ~~Lower Canada, w~~ after being deprived of its exclusive comrⁿ all the eastern pr^y As a consequence of this, the *Trade with* of British ~~own~~ open to all British subjects.

The chief measure of 1834 was the *Amendment of the Poor Laws*. The proposal to devote part of the revenues of the Irish Church to secular uses, and especially to Education, caused the secession of Mr. Stanley, Sir James Graham, and two other ministers; and, from other causes, EARL GREY resigned a little later (July 9). S^t E^r COUNT MELBOURNE now became Prime Minister; but the removal of Lord Althorp to the House of Lords, by the death of his father (Earl Spencer), gave the king a

pretext for suddenly dismissing the Government, and SIR ROBERT PEEL, who happened to be abroad, was called home in haste to form a new ministry. He accepted office, and dissolved Parliament (December, 1834).

It was in this autumn that the *Houses of Parliament* were burnt down through the overheating of the flues in burning the old *wooden tallies* used in keeping the accounts of the Court of Exchequer (October 16). The splendid new *Palace of Westminster*, designed by SIR CHARLES BARRY, was begun in 1840, and first occupied by the Peers in 1847, and by the Commons in 1852.

Sir Robert Peel, in a letter to his constituents at Tamworth, promised that progress in practical reform, which had been the policy of Pitt; but his time was not yet come. He was defeated several times in the House of Commons; and at last Lord John Russell carried a resolution for the appropriation of the surplus property of the Irish Church to the education of the Irish people (April 7, 1835).

Sir Robert Peel resigned next day, and LORD MELBOURNE'S Ministry returned to office; but with the conspicuous omission of LORD BROUHAM. This feebler revival of the ~~Re~~ government had to contend with the compact ~~and were t,~~ opposition in the Commons, under Sir R^e be registered with a hostile majority in the Lords, led ready, and theref^d eloquence of Lord Lyndhurst. Hence th^{re} less necessary to carry their Irish Tithe Bill with th^{re} system has been re-a Clause," on which they had regained oh 1868. But the sley effected the *Reform of Municipal Corporations in England*; and in 1836 the *Marriage and Registration Acts* relieved Dissenters from the necessity of being married according to the forms of the Church of England, and established a complete system of registering Births, Marriages, and Deaths. Several measures proposed in the following session were cut short by the death of William IV., at Windsor, on the 20th of June, 1837.

CHAP. XL.—VICTORIA.

Born, May 24, 1819. Accession, June 20, 1837.

The Princess ALEXANDRINA VICTORIA, only child of Edward, Duke of Kent, the fourth son of George III., had attained her legal majority of 18 years within a month before the late King's death. As the Crown of Hanover descended in the male line, it devolved upon the fifth son of George III., Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland.

The young queen had been trained by her mother, not only in every virtue and accomplishment, but in habits of healthy exercise and activity, of punctuality and industry. The people were familiar with her presence; and enough was known of her character to add confidence to hope, in the loyal enthusiasm, which found full expression on her first visit to the City (November 9). Her *First Parliament* met on the 13th of that month, and settled on Her Majesty the moderate Civil List of 385,000*l.* The queen has ever since kept free from debt.

In public affairs, clouds were gathering on various sides. The discontent, which had long been growing in *Canada*, broke out before the end of the year into a rebellion, which was speedily subdued. The EARL OF DURHAM, sent out ~~as~~ ^{the} Lord High Commissioner, prepared for the Union of Upper and Lower Canada, which was effected in 1840. Since then, all the eastern provinces of British North America, with that of British Columbia on the Pacific, have been united in the "Dominion of Canada" (1867).

At home, bad harvests, depressed trade, and the continued demand for further political reform, gave rise to much disturbance. In 1838, a party was formed under the name of *Chartists*, whose demands were embodied in the *five points* of what they called the "People's Charter," namely Universal Suffrage, Vote by Ballot, Annual Parliaments, the Payment of Members, and the Abolition of the Property Qualification for seats in Parliament; to

which was afterwards added a sixth point, Equal Electoral Districts. In the same year Mr. RICHARD COBDEN formed the famous *Anti-Corn-Law League*, for the repeal of the laws restricting the importation of corn.

In February, 1840, Queen Victoria was married to her cousin, Prince ALBERT, of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha (born August 26, 1819), who proved to Her Majesty the best of husbands and the wisest of advisers. In 1857 he was raised to the dignity of PRINCE CONSORT.

One of the most important measures carried through Parliament, in the first three years of this reign, was Sir Rowland Hill's system of a *Uniform Penny Postage*, which came into full operation in May, 1840.

During these three years, Britain was engaged in three wars, besides the Canadian Rebellion. The last begun, but the first ended, was that in *Syria*, which had been overrun by the army of the rebel viceroy of Egypt, Mehemet Ali. In spite of the opposition of France, which had still a longing eye to Egypt, Lord Palmerston concluded the Quadruple Treaty between Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, to protect Turkey (July 15, 1840). An English squadron, under Admiral Sir Robert Stopford and Commodore Sir Charles Napier—in concert with the Turkish and Austrian fleets—bombarded Beyrouth, Sidon, and Acre. Mehemet Ali gave up Syria, and was made hereditary viceroy of Egypt. The French minister, M. Thiers, threatened war, but Louis Philippe, with M. Guizot as his new minister, established the “cordial understanding,” which bound together the constitutional states of France and England (October, 1840).

In *China*, the opening of the trade in 1834 had been immediately followed by a quarrel about the importation of opium from India, which the authorities endeavoured to prevent. From this cause the *First Chinese War* began in 1839, and was ended by the *Peace of Nanking*, in 1842. Five Chinese ports were opened to the commerce of all nations, and the island of *Hong-Kong* was ceded to Great Britain.

The alarm felt for the security of our *Indian Empire*, against the supposed designs of Russia, caused a barrier to be sought in *Afghanistan*, which lies north-west of India. In 1838, a British army crossed the Indus, and the chief fortresses of *Afghanistan*, with the capital city of *Cabul*, were taken. In 1841, the Afghans rose against the small British force left behind at *Cabul*. Our envoys were treacherously murdered, and the troops, retiring from *Cabul* under a capitulation, were attacked while entangled in the depth of winter in the terrible *Khyber Pass*, where about 26,000 perished—men, women, and children; and one only Dr. Brydone, escaped to tell the tale (January, 1842). Four months later, an army under Generals Pollock and Nott forced that pass again, and advanced victorious to *Cabul* (September). Having destroyed its fortifications, and released the British hostages, our army retired from *Afghanistan*. The *Afghan War* was followed by the conquest of *Sind* (the valley of the Lower Indus) as the fruit of the great victory of *Meeanee*, gained by General Sir Charles Napier against enormous odds (February, 1843).

Meanwhile the Melbourne Ministry had lost ground with the nation. Bad seasons and commercial depression caused financial disorder and general distress, and encouraged the Chartist, Anti-Corn Law, and Repeal agitations. Lord Melbourne proposed an alteration in the Corn Laws; but the Government was defeated in the new elections (August, 1841).

SIR ROBERT PEEL now entered on his second Ministry, which lasted for six years, and revived Pitt's commercial and financial policy. By the bold measure of an *Income Tax* (now first imposed in time of peace), he not only restored the balance between revenue and expenditure, but made a large reduction in the Customs' Duties. His great principle was to abolish or reduce the duties on the raw materials of our manufactures, and on articles of the first necessity. His policy was favoured by a bounteous harvest (the first for several years), and by the end of the

Chinese and Afghan Wars ; and prosperity began to revive rapidly (1842).

Large surplus balances of Revenue over Expenditure enabled Sir Robert Peel to carry on his reduction and simplification of Customs, to abolish duties on Exports, and to remove Excise Duties, which hampered manufactures and increased the price of the most necessary things, such as bricks, glass, and soap (1844-5). But for the removal of the duty on *Glass*, the two Crystal Palaces could never have been built.

The agitation for the Repeal of the Union had now reached its height ; and “ monster meetings ” assembled in Ireland. Mr. O’Connell, and others of the chief leaders, were found guilty of sedition, and sentenced to imprisonment (February, 1844). The House of Lords pronounced their conviction illegal ; but the Agitator’s influence was broken. He was soon outbidden by a more violent class of demagogues, called the “ Young Ireland ” party ; his health failed ; and, within three years, he died at Genoa, on his way to seek the Pope’s blessing (May, 1847). Meanwhile Sir Robert Peel attempted to win over the Catholics of Ireland by a permanent endowment to their College for training priests at *Maynooth*, and by founding the three “ Queen’s Colleges ” on the basis of unsectarian education (1845).

But at this moment both Ireland and England were thrown back into a new sea of troubles. A cold wet season brought on not only a bad harvest, but a new form of blight and rot in the potato plant. While the price of wheat rose enormously in England, the Irish people lost their chief article of food, and there was soon a famine in the land. This disaster added resistless force to the Anti-Corn Law League, which had worked harder and harder since 1842, under the leadership of RICHARD COBDEN and JOHN BRIGHT. Sir Robert Peel, after a fruitless attempt to retire and to leave the work to the Liberal party, whose leaders were recent converts to free trade in corn, declared his intention to repeal the Corn Laws (December, 1845).

His Bills for removing the duties on foreign corn, and for a future reduction of Customs' Duties, were vehemently opposed by a section of the Conservatives, who formed the "Protectionist" party. Its leaders were LORD STANLEY* in the House of Lords, and in the Commons, LORD GEORGE BENTINCK and MR. BENJAMIN DISRAELI (born 1805). On the same day on which the Bill for the free importation of corn received the royal assent, Sir Robert Peel was defeated in the Commons by a combination of the Protectionists and Whigs against his Irish Coercion Bill (June 29, 1846). The same evening he announced his resignation, in words which have since been inscribed on more than one monument to his memory. After paying a warm tribute to Mr. Cobden as the real author of his free-trade measures, Sir Robert concluded thus:—"It may be that I shall leave a name sometimes remembered with expressions of good will in the abodes of those whose lot it is to labour and to earn their daily bread by the sweat of their brow, when they shall recruit their exhausted strength with abundant and untaxed food, the sweeter because it is no longer leavened with a sense of injustice."

The Whigs now returned to office, LORD JOHN RUSSELL being Premier, and LORD PALMERSTON again Foreign Secretary (July 6). Their first attention was claimed by the fearful progress of the Irish famine, which reached its worst in the summer of 1847. The pressure was relieved by a tide of emigration, which was called the "Irish Exodus," and by the abundant harvest of this year in England.

The new year marked a great crisis of European history. In France, the resistance of M. Guizot to Electoral Reform provoked a *Third Revolution*. Louis Philippe fled to England in disguise, and a Republic was proclaimed at Paris (February, 1848). The flame of

* Mr. Stanley, in Lord Grey's Ministry, was called to the House of Peers as Baron Stanley (1844), in the lifetime of his father, whom he succeeded in 1851, as the fourteenth EARL OF DERBY. He died in 1869.

revolution spread over Europe, and gave a new impulse to the Chartist agitation in England. On the 10th of April, a great procession was formed on Kennington Common, to carry a petition for the Charter to the door of Parliament. The Duke of Wellington, to whom the safety of the capital was entrusted, arranged a concealed military force in different quarters of London ; but the voluntary muster of the citizens, as special constables, was enough to prevent any sign of disturbance ; and the Chartist procession was quietly stopped by the police at the bridges. That day bore triumphant witness to the security provided against revolution by rational liberty, based on our laws, and growing up as a part of the life of Britain.

An open rebellion broke out in Ireland ; but a collision with the military at Ballingarry ended in the ignominious arrest of Mr. Smith O'Brien, as he was lurking in a cabbage garden (July 29). He was tried, with three others, for high treason ; but the sentence of death was commuted to transportation. A great measure was passed for the improvement of Ireland, by facilitating the sale of estates encumbered with debt, a condition into which a large part of the land had fallen (1848). In the next Session, the chief remaining step in free trade was taken by the repeal of the *Navigation Laws* * (1849).

Early in the same year, the great country of the *Punjab* † was added to the British Empire of India. The death of our old ally, *Ranjeet Singh*, the "Lion of the Punjab," in 1839, had left his warlike horsemen, the Sikhs, without control ; and, at the end of 1845, the vizier of the young Maharajah of Lahore, *Dhuleep Singh*, was fain to let them loose for an attack on the British frontiers. They were repulsed in a series of battles by Lord Gough and the Governor-General, Sir Henry Hardinge ; and peace was signed at Lahore (March, 1846). Two years later, the

* For the origin of these laws, see p. 207.

† That is, the "Five Rivers," the plain watered by the five great tributaries of the Indus.

Sikhs renewed the war; and, after a fearful loss of life at *Chillianwallah*, Lord Gough won the decisive victory of *Goojerat* (February 21, 1849). The Punjab was annexed to British India; and the Maharajah Dhuleep Singh came to live in England as a loyal and favoured subject of the queen. Next year a war broke out with the *Burmese Empire*; and it ended in the annexation to India of the great province of *Pegu*, on the eastern coast of the *Bay of Bengal* (1853).

The great revolutionary movement of 1848-49 had subsided or been suppressed, leaving Europe in profound peace at the close of the first half of the 19th century (1850). In order to use, and (as was fondly hoped) to secure, the peaceful union of the civilized world, Prince Albert suggested the great *Exhibition of the Industry of all Nations*; and the genius of Sir Joseph Paxton provided a house of iron and glass in Hyde Park, which the enchanted spectators called the *Crystal Palace* (1851).* But the Exhibition was scarcely closed, when a new French revolution led to another period of war.

CHARLES LOUIS NAPOLEON (the third son of Louis Bonaparte and Hortense Beauharnais), had long claimed to be the heir of the Emperor, his uncle. He had twice attempted to raise insurrections against Louis Philippe, at Strasburg in 1836, and at Boulogne in 1840. Having escaped from his prison at Ham (1846), he lived in England till the revolution of 1848. At the end of that year the Prince was elected, by universal suffrage, President of the Republic. But a contest ensued between the President and the Assembly; and Louis Napoleon seized supreme power by force on the night of December 2, 1851. An appeal to the universal suffrage of the French people made him President for ten years by nearly seven and a half millions of votes.

Lord Palmerston at once recognized the new govern-

* The Crystal Palace at Sydenham was enlarged and improved from the Exhibition Building, the site of which, in Hyde Park, is marked by the Albert Memorial.

ment of France, and expressed his approval of the act, without consulting his colleagues, or even the queen ; and he was dismissed from office by the Premier. Early in the next session he carried a motion against the Government, upon which Lord John Russell resigned. The EARL OF DERBY now became Premier, with MR. DISRAELI as Chancellor of the Exchequer (February 27, 1852).

On September 14, the great DUKE OF WELLINGTON died at Walmer, at the age of eighty-three ; and his remains were laid, with a splendid public funeral, beside Nelson, under the dome of St. Paul's. Three days later, the Empire, which he had overthrown at Waterloo, was revived by the votes of nearly eight million Frenchmen, and NAPOLEON III. was proclaimed Emperor, on the favourite Bonapartist anniversary of Austerlitz (December 2, 1852). - The year closed with the defeat of Lord Derby's government in the House of Commons, and the formation of a "Coalition Ministry" of Whigs, Liberals, and the followers of Sir Robert Peel, under the EARL OF ABERDEEN (December 28).

The country was now at an unexampled height of prosperity, which was stimulated by the great discoveries of gold in California and Australia. MR. WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, brought forward his great budget of 1853, reducing Customs' and Excise Duties, and the Interest of the National Debt, and imposing a Succession Duty on all kinds of property. The Income Tax, which had been renewed from time to time since 1842, was now continued for seven years, with the prospect of its extinction in 1860.

Few saw the cloud which was rising to mar those hopes. While bidding for the crown, Louis Napoleon had declared, "The Empire is Peace"; but he soon found, like his Uncle, that it could only be upheld by war. Russia, which had ruined Napoleon I., gave Napoleon III. the double opportunity of a war, and of an alliance with England. The Czar Nicholas, who was equal to Peter the Great in ambition, thought the time come to seize the long desired prize of Constantinople. On the 3rd of July, the

Russian troops crossed the frontier river, Pruth; and the Sultan declared war (September 18, 1853). While the Turks, under Omar Pasha, bravely maintained the line of the Danube, their fleet was utterly destroyed by the Russians at Sinope, on the south shore of the Black Sea.

England, after repeated concessions to Russia, "drifted into war"—to use the Prime Minister's own words—in alliance with the French Emperor. A treaty was formed between France, Great Britain, and Turkey; and war was declared against Russia (March 28, 1854). The Queen herself led out to sea the powerful fleet which was sent to the Baltic under Sir Charles Napier; but the want of gun-boats allowed little to be effected in that quarter. The real seat of war became the *Crimean* peninsula, between the Black Sea, and the Sea of Azov, where Russia's great arsenal of *Sevastopol* formed "a standing menace" to Constantinople. The English, French, and Turkish armies, under *LORD RAGLAN** and *MARSHAL ST. ARNAUD*, landed on the west coast of the Crimea, and drove the Russian army from its position on the heights above the river *Alma* (September 20). Instead of at once attacking Sevastopol, they marched round the head of its long harbour, and sat down before the fortress on its southern side, holding communication with the sea by the harbour of *Balaklava*. But the Russian army kept possession of the open country; and thousands upon thousands of recruits were sent down from the heart of the Empire, most of them to perish on the march.

The *Battle of Balaklava* is memorable for the rash but brilliant ride of "the six hundred" English light cavalry "into the jaws of death," to attack the Russian batteries (October 25). In that of *Intermann*, the "thin red line" of the British infantry held their ground against the whole Russian army, until the French supports came up (November 5). Meanwhile Sevastopol had resisted a bombardment by sea and land (October 17); and the

* As Lord Fitzroy Somerset, he had been a favourite officer of Wellington, and afterwards the Duke's private Secretary.

genius of Colonel Todleben protected the city by new earthworks. The winter siege, for which no preparation had been made, involved our troops in terrible sufferings, aggravated by the plague of cholera. Public indignation found vent in Mr. Roebuck's motion for an enquiry, the success of which caused Lord Aberdeen to resign (January 31, 1855). He was succeeded by LORD PALMERSTON.

At the beginning of the new year, the Kingdom of SARDINIA*—which had become a constitutional State under the “gallant king,” Victor Emmanuel, and his patriotic minister, Count Cavour—formed a treaty with France and England, for the sake of acquiring future influence (January 10, 1855). The Czar Nicholas of Russia died of vexation and a cold caught in reviewing his troops (March 2). At length, the French and English stormed the southern defences of Sevastopol; and Prince Gortschakoff, who had resisted to the last, retired to the forts on the north side of the harbour (September 10).

Peace was signed at Paris, March 30, 1856. Its chief terms were the virtual independence of the principalities north of the Danube, over which Turkey had sovereign rights and Russia claimed a protectorate; a new boundary, which shut out Russia from closing the mouths of the Danube; and an engagement on her part not to maintain a fleet in the Black Sea. The last restriction was removed by the conference of London in 1870. The war was estimated to have cost England 100,000,000*l.*, of which 41,000,000*l.* were added to the National Debt.

It was scarcely ended, when two new wars broke out in the East, with *China* and *Persia* (1856). The latter was provoked by the attack of Persia on Herat, a city on the frontier of Afghanistan, and was speedily ended by an expedition to the Persian Gulf under Sir James Outram. The *Second Chinese War* was begun to punish an outrage on a British vessel. It was opposed in England by a coalition of parties, who defeated the Government in the

* Though this kingdom took its name from the island of Sardinia, its chief seat was Piedmont, in the north-west of Italy.

House of Commons. But an appeal to the country gave Lord Palmerston a majority of nearly ninety in the *Fifth Parliament* of Queen Victoria (April 30). The EARL OF ELGIN was sent out as special Commissioner, backed by a powerful force; but, as soon as he reached China, that force had to be diverted to another use. For, just when a proposal had been made to celebrate the centenary of the Battle of Plassey, which won our Indian Empire, that Empire was imperilled by the great *Mutiny of the Sepoys*.

On the 10th of May, the native troops at Meerut slew their British officers, marched on Delhi, the old Mohammedian capital, and proclaimed the descendant of the Great Mogul as Emperor of India. The insurrection spread through Bengal, and fearful massacres and atrocities were perpetrated, wherever the rebels were successful. In Oude, which had been lately annexed by the Governor-General, Lord Dalhousie, the ferocious *Nana Sahib* put all the British residents of Cawnpore to a treacherous and cruel death, and flung their bodies into a well, and then laid siege to the Residency at Lucknow.

General Havelock, who had just landed at Bombay with the troops returning from Persia, won immortal fame by the heroism with which he fought his way with his little band step by step, till he defeated Nana Sahib and retook Cawnpore. Sir James Outram followed, and insisted on serving under his inferior officer in the relief of Lucknow. Delhi had been taken a few days before, and the king made prisoner, while his son and grandson were put to death (September 21). Meanwhile Sir Colin Campbell, who had gained high distinction in the Crimean War, started at a day's notice to take the command in India, where he won the title of LORD CLYDE. We need not follow the steps by which the mutiny was quelled in the following year.

One result of the outbreak was the transference of the government of India from the Company to the Crown; and the QUEEN was proclaimed throughout British India,

with the Governor-General, Viscount Canning, as her first Viceroy (November 1, 1858). In place of Pitt's *Board of Control*, a Secretary of State was appointed for India, with a Council of fifteen members.*

Lord Elgin had returned to China in the autumn of 1857. Canton was taken by assault; but it was not till the English and French forces had advanced upon Pekin, that the Emperor yielded. The Treaty of *Tien-tsin* granted freedom of trade to foreign nations, the toleration of Christianity, and equality of respect between Chinese officers and the foreigners whom they had hitherto styled "outside barbarians." Ambassadors were to be sent and received on both sides; and China had to pay a large indemnity for the cost of the war (June, 1858).

Meanwhile the powerful Government of Lord Palmerston had fallen suddenly and strangely. A fanatical Italian, named Orsini, had made a plot to assassinate the Emperor of the French (January, 1858). The plot had been hatched in England; and, on the Emperor's complaint, Lord Palmerston proposed to make the offence of conspiring against a foreign sovereign a felony. The people took alarm on behalf of the sacred right of that asylum for political offences, which refugees of all nations and parties (including Louis Napoleon himself) have ever found in Britain. The Commons threw out the Bill, and Lord Palmerston resigned, rather than forfeit his promise to the Emperor (February, 1858). This affair had a lasting result of vast importance. The threats of certain French colonels against England caused the formation of the *Volunteer Force*, which has become a permanent part of the defences of the kingdom.

The second Ministry of LORD DERBY and Mr. Disraeli was defeated in the attempt to settle the question of further *Reform in Parliament*. A new election left them in a

* For a long time there had been three Secretaries of State—for *Home Affairs*; for *Foreign Affairs*; and for the *Colonies and War*. The last was divided into two separate offices in 1854; and the Secretaryship for India now made a *fifth*.

minority in the Queen's *Sixth Parliament*. Lord Derby resigned (June 11, 1859); and LORD PALMERSTON became Premier for the second time, at the age of seventy-five; with Lord John Russell as Foreign Secretary.

Just at this time, France had joined Sardinia in a war to expel the Austrians from Italy. The Emperor Napoleon crossed the Alps, and won the victories of *Montebello*, *Magenta*, and *Solférino*; and the treaty made at Villafranca gave Lombardy to Victor Emmanuel (July 11). It is not within the province of British history to follow the wonderful series of events, through which the enthusiasm of the Italian people and the heroism of GARIBALDI united nearly the whole peninsula in the *Kingdom of Italy* (March 30, 1861). The work was afterwards completed by the winning of the Venetian territory (1866), and of Rome itself (1870). The aid of Louis Napoleon in 1859 was paid for with the provinces of Nice and Savoy; and the patriot minister, Cavour, died just when his work was done (June, 1861).

Meanwhile England and France were drawn together by a *Commercial Treaty*, realizing the schemes of Pitt in 1787. It was negotiated by Mr. Cobden, and carried through Parliament by Mr. Gladstone, as part of his second great financial scheme (1860). The same year was marked by the end of the *Third Chinese War*, which arose from the treacherous resistance of the "Celestials" to the entrance of the English and French ambassadors (1859). This time the allied armies took Pekin, where Lord Elgin and the French envoy renewed the treaty of Tien-tsin (October, 1860).

But now another cloud arose beyond the Atlantic. The Northern and Southern divisions of the United States of America had long been engaged in a political rivalry, which turned partly upon the question of Negro Slavery. The election of ABRAHAM LINCOLN as President (November, 1860) was the signal for the secession of the Southern States, which were only subdued after a long and terrible civil war (1865).

That war accomplished the abolition of slavery in America, and inflicted upon England the distress of the "Cotton Famine," which was borne by the work-people of the manufacturing districts with heroic patience, and relieved with princely liberality by public subscription. In her character of a neutral, England was subjected to causes of quarrel, which were only brought to a final settlement eleven years later (1872).

On the 14th of December, 1861, the PRINCE CONSORT ALBERT suddenly died of typhoid fever at Windsor Castle. The nation shared with deep sympathy in the Queen's overwhelming grief, and discovered at last all the greatness and goodness that were lost in the Prince.

This blow caused a suspension of party strife, which was prolonged by the moderation of Lord Palmerston. The last five years of his Ministry were marked by general prosperity; by a flourishing revenue and decreasing debt; by further reductions of taxation; and by measures of practical reform, especially in relation to the sanitary and social welfare of the people. The whole nation rejoiced at the marriage of ALBERT EDWARD, PRINCE OF WALES, to the Princess ALEXANDRA of Denmark (March 10, 1863), and sympathized with the sufferings of Denmark in the war with Austria and Prussia (1864).

When the Greeks expelled their Bavarian king, Otho (1862), and chose Prince George of Denmark as "King of the Hellenes," Great Britain gave the Ionian Islands back to Greece (1864). Parliament was dissolved on the near completion of its seven years' term; and a new Parliament had been elected, still more thoroughly devoted to Lord Palmerston, when that statesman died at the age of eighty-one (October 18, 1865), and was buried in Westminster Abbey between Pitt and Fox.

The strife of parties now broke out afresh, and the attempt to carry another Reform Bill proved fatal to the Government, of which EARL RUSSELL was the new head (June 18, 1866).* LORD DERBY became Prime Minister

* Lord John Russell had been created Earl Russell in 1861.

for the third time, and Mr. Disraeli carried a second *Reform Act* on the basis of household suffrage in boroughs. Votes were also given to lodgers, and in counties the franchise was extended to tenants paying 12*l.* a-year. There was a considerable redistribution of seats (1867). Reform Acts for Scotland and Ireland were passed in 1868.

In this year England had another war with a barbarian power. At the close of 1867, an armed force was sent to Abyssinia, to release some British captives who were detained by the ferocious tyrant Theodore. After storming his hill fortress of Magdala, where he fell by his own hand (April 13, 1868), our troops retired, without the loss of a man in battle; and the commander, Sir Robert Napier, was created Lord Napier of Magdala.

Just after the meeting of Parliament, in 1868, Lord Derby resigned office through ill-health, and Mr. DISRAELI became Premier. Lord Stanley,* who conducted foreign affairs with great ability, had declared that *Ireland was the question of the day.* In answer to the plans of the Ministry, Mr. Gladstone carried a motion for the disestablishment of the Irish Church; but the question was reserved for the Parliament about to be elected under the new Reform Acts. The elections held in November showed a majority so overwhelming against Government, that Mr. Disraeli at once resigned (December 2). MR. GLADSTONE became Prime Minister (December 9), on the day before the meeting of the *Eighth Parliament* of Victoria. In the ensuing Session, he carried an Act for the *Disestablishment and Disendowment of the Irish Church* (1869). In the next, he passed a measure for regulating the *Tenure of Land* in Ireland (1870). In the same Session, an Act was passed to provide *Education* for all children in England. A similar Act was passed for Scotland in 1872.

In the summer of 1870, the peace of Europe was suddenly broken by a conflict, which had been long threatened between Germany and France. This is not the place to

* Son of Lord Derby, and afterwards the fifteenth Earl.

tell the story of the great but rapid war, which was begun by France on July 15, 1870, and ended by the *Peace of Versailles* on February 26, 1871. It brought the victorious Germans within the walls of Paris, overthrew the Empire of Napoleon,* rent from France the province of Alsace and part of Lorraine, and created a new Empire of Germany under the King of Prussia, WILLIAM I. The great concern of England with the war (after vainly offering mediation) was to succour the sick and wounded on both sides, and to send food to the starving inhabitants of Paris after the siege.

In the winter of this year, the nation was alarmed by the illness of the Prince of Wales, who was seized with typhoid fever just after his thirtieth birthday. His life was almost despaired of, when he began to recover on the dreaded anniversary of his father's death from the same disease ten years before (December 14, 1871). The danger called forth a deep and universal feeling of sympathy and loyalty. A new and striking proof was seen of the value of hereditary monarchy, in providing a permanent head and living centre, in which the life of the nation finds a personal expression. It was felt, with deep gratitude, that England had enjoyed that blessing, with scarcely an interruption, for the thousand years from the accession of Alfred, in 871, to this new bond of loyal love for her who, above all the sovereigns of England in that space, equalled Alfred in private and public virtues. A fit expression for the gratitude of Queen and Prince, Nobles and People, was found in the Service of Thanksgiving to Almighty God at St. Paul's Cathedral (February 27, 1872). Such was the mark of happiness set upon the thirty-fifth year of QUEEN VICTORIA, a length of reign only surpassed by six of her predecessors.†

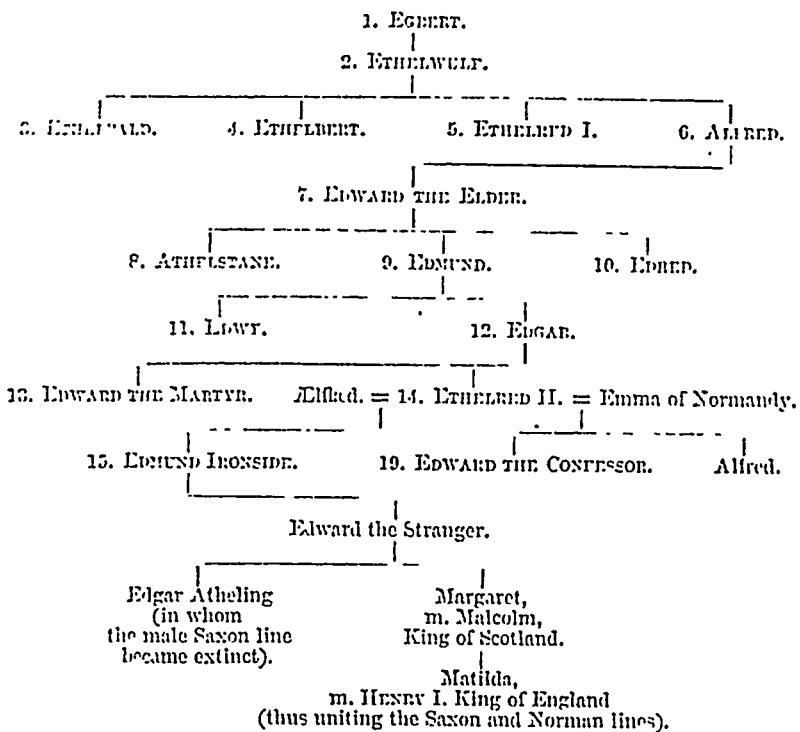
* The Emperor Napoleon III. died at Chislehurst in Kent, January 9th, 1873.

† GEORGE III. alone reached the 60th year of his reign; HENRY III. and EDWARD III., the 57th and 51st; ELIZABETH, the 45th; HENRY VI. and HENRY VIII., the 39th and 38th.

Note.—In the following Tables those names only are inserted which are of some importance.

TABLE A.

DESCENT OF THE ENGLISH KINGS BEFORE THE CONQUEST.



Note.—The numbers mark the succession of the kings before the Conquest. The following were not of the House of Egbert:—The three Danish kings—16. CANUTE; 17. HAROLD HAREFOOT; 18. HARDICANUTE;—and 20. HAROLD II.

TABLE B.

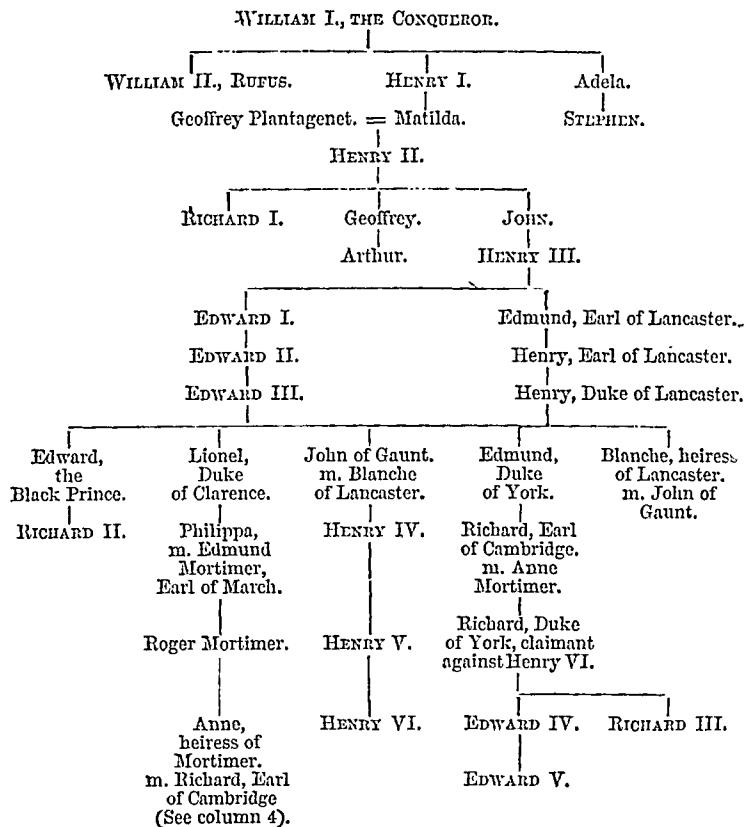
DESCENT OF THE ENGLISH KINGS FROM THE CONQUEST
TO THE END OF THE PLANTAGENET LINE.

TABLE C.
GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

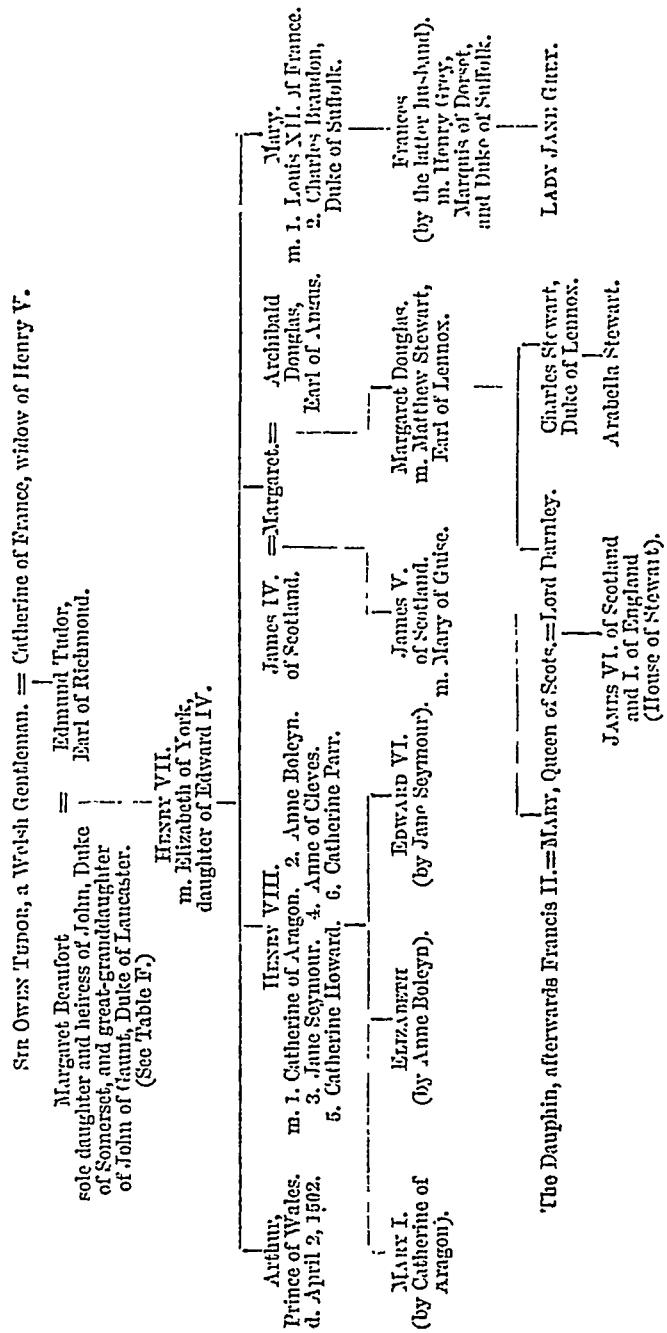
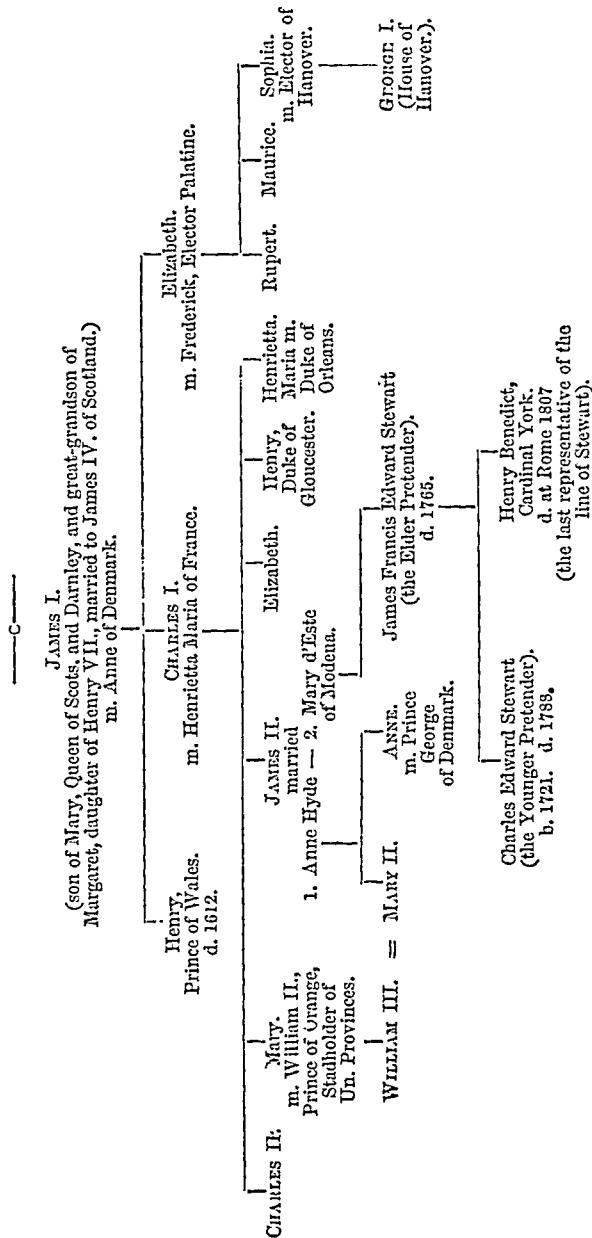


TABLE D.
GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF STEWART.



A TABLE E.
GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK-HANOVER.
George I. (great-grandson of James I., see Table C).
m. Sophia Dorothea of Zell.

Princess II.

m. Wilhelmina Carolina of Brandenburg-Anspach.

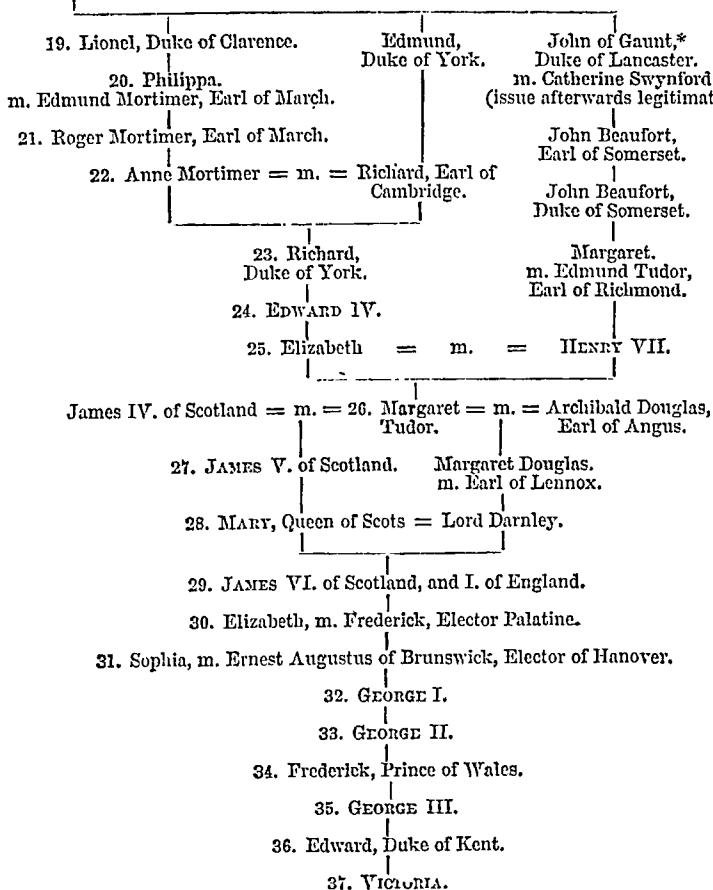
Frederick, Prince of Wales, d. Jan. 29, 1751. m. Augusta of Saxe-Gotha.	George III. m. Sophia Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz.	William IV. Duke of York. m. Caroline of Brunswick, d. 1827.	Edward, Duke of Clarence. m. Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen.	Ernest, Duke of Cumberland and Victoria of Saxe-Coburg, King of Hanover. d. 1851.	Henry Frederick, Duke of Cumberland. m. Victoria, second son of Ernest I., Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, (d. Dec. 14, 1861.)	William Augustus, Duke of Cumberland. b. 1721. d. 1765.	Augustus, Duke of Brunswick. m. Charlotte, Princess of Wales, b. Nov. 6, 1817. m. Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, late King of the Belgians.
George IV. m. Charlotte, Princess of Wales, b. Nov. 6, 1817. m. Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, late King of the Belgians.	Frederick, Duke of York. m. Caroline of Brunswick, d. 1827.	William IV. Duke of Clarence. m. Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen.	Edward, Duke of Kent. d. 1820.	Cumbergland, Duke of Sussex. d. 1813.	Augustus, Frederick, Duke of Cambridge. d. 1850.	Adolphus Frederick, Duke of Cambridge. d. 1850.	Augustus, Duke of Brunswick. m. Charlotte, Princess of Wales, b. Nov. 6, 1817. m. Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, late King of the Belgians.
Princess Charlotte, b. Mar. 21, 1817. m. Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, late King of the Belgians.	Princess Charlotte, b. Mar. 21, 1817. m. Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, late King of the Belgians.	Princess Charlotte, b. Mar. 21, 1817. m. Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, late King of the Belgians.	Princess Charlotte, b. Mar. 21, 1817. m. Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, late King of the Belgians.	Princess Charlotte, b. Mar. 21, 1817. m. Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, late King of the Belgians.	Princess Charlotte, b. Mar. 21, 1817. m. Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, late King of the Belgians.	Princess Charlotte, b. Mar. 21, 1817. m. Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, late King of the Belgians.	Princess Charlotte, b. Mar. 21, 1817. m. Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, late King of the Belgians.
Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, b. Nov. 9, 1841. m. Princess Alexandra of Denmark, March 10, 1863 (two sons and three daughters).	Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh, b. Aug. 6, 1850.	Arthur, b. May 1, 1850.	Leopold, b. Apr. 7, 1853.	Victoria, Princess Royal, b. Nov. 21, 1840.	Princess Alice, Royal, b. Apr. 25, 1843.	Helena, b. May 25, 1816.	Louise, Beatrice, m. Prince of Wales, b. Mar. 18, 1819.
				m. Frederick, Prince of Wales, July 1, 1862.	m. Louis, Prince of Wales, July 1, 1862.	m. Prince of Wales, June 12, 1856.	m. Prince of Wales, June 23, 1819.

TABLE F.

DESCENT OF VICTORIA I. FROM EGBERT.



1. EGBERT. 2. ETHELWULF. 3. ALFRED THE GREAT. 4. EDWARD THE ELDER.
5. EDMUND I. 6. EDGAR. 7. ETHELRED II. 8. EDMUND II. IRONSIDE. 9. Edward the
Stranger (not a king). 10. Margaret, wife of Malcolm King of Scotland. 11. Matilda,
wife of HENRY I. 12. MATILDA or MAUD, Empress of Germany, and wife of Geoffrey
of Anjou. 13. HENRY II. 14. JOHN. 15. HENRY III. 16. EDWARD I. 17. EDWARD II.
18. EDWARD III.



* John of Gaunt was older than Edmund, Duke of York, but the latter is placed before him for typographical convenience.

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